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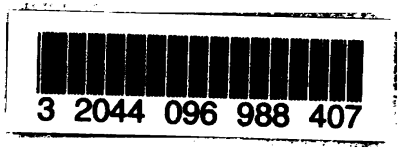
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ELEMENTS

OF

USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOLUME II.

CONTAINING A

HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL

ACCOUNT OF THE

UNITED STATES.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN. ESQ.

"Among the various branches of science, which constitute the education of American citizens, that of government is highly important and necessary. At present, too little attention is paid to this kind of education. While the governments of Rome, Sparta and Athens, are industriously taught; while the institutions of Lycurgus and Solon form important features of public education, the constitutions of our own country are scarcely read....Our youth in schools and colleges will be encouraged to devote some of their time to this necessary science, by finding it simplified and methodized."—*Smith's Comparative view of the Constitutions.*

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BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the third day of March, in the twenty-ninth year of the Independence of the Uuited States of America, NOAH WEBSTER, Jun. of said district, Esq. hath deposited in this office, the title of a book the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, viz :

" Elements of Useful Knowledge, volume II., containing a " historical and geographical account of the United " States : for the use of schools, by Noah Webster, Jun."

In conformity to the act of Congress of the United States, entitled, " An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned."

CH's. DENISON, Clerk of the District of Connecticut.

Connecticut, ss. District-Clerk's Office.

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Test, CH's. DENISON, Clerk.

PREFACE.

THIS volume of the *Elements of Useful Knowledge*, begins with a continuation of the history of the United States, from the commencement of the Revolution, and brings it down to the adoption of the present constitution, and the organization of the government in 1789. It then proceeds to exhibit the present condition of the United States, and of the several states, as separate governments. To avoid the repetitions which occur so frequently in geographical descriptions, I have first given a general view of those things which are common to all the states; and arranged, under the head of each state, descriptions of things which are peculiar to each. This plan, though from the nature of things it cannot be rendered perfect, has nevertheless enabled me to compress many parts of the work into a smaller compass than usual, and to avoid in part that tedious sameness which characterises treatises of this kind.

The brief view given of the constitution of the several states, will, it is presumed, be well received; *as nothing* can be more proper for the instruction *of youth*, than a correct epitome of the prin

ples on which the local governments are founded. The object of the citizens of the several states, is, to secure life, property and rational freedom; and an exhibition of the various modes by which the citizens of different sections of the union, have attempted to secure these invaluable blessings, must be no less entertaining than useful. The constitutions, being the work of the ablest statesmen in the United States, ought to be viewed with respect, and studied with attention.

This volume completes the view of the United States—which, as being of most importance to the youth of this country, occupies a larger portion of the work, than will be appropriated to a description of the other parts of the earth. The two first volumes are closely connected, and ought to be used together; but the succeeding volumes will be more distinct, and may be separated without inconvenience to the reader.

ELEMENTS

OF

USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

HISTORICAL EVENTS.

SECTION XIV.

Of the remote Causes of the Revolution.

THE first planters of New-England were all dissenters from the Church of England, who declined to conform to its ritual ceremonies, and by their opposition, called down upon their heads the vengeance of archbishop Laud. To get rid of such turbulent subjects, was rather to be desired than dreaded, by the king and court. But within a few years, the numerous emigrations from England alarmed the government, and orders were issued to stop the sailing of ships bound to America.—These orders however were temporary, and most or all those men departed from England, who wished to settle in a country, where they might be exempt from arbitrary government. As the plantations increased, and became respectable, the Court of England began to be alarmed with the apprehension, that the colonies would become wholly independent of the parent state.

Of the Measures taken to prevent the Independence of the Colonies. With a view to secure the dominion of England over the colonies, in ecclesiastical as well as civil affairs, king Charles the first granted a commission, dated April 10, 1634, by which he empowered

two archbishops, with certain other persons, to superintend the colonies, to erect courts, civil and ecclesiastical, to remove governors for causes which to them should seem meet, to inquire into the conduct of all officers, to punish offences with fine and imprisonment, to make and repeal laws and revoke charters. This extraordinary commission excited great alarm in the infant colonies, but the inhabitants determined to resist the execution of it; and on receiving intelligence that a governor, appointed by the commissioners, would proceed to America, the government of Massachusetts hastened the fortifications in Boston harbor.—It does not appear that any attempt was made to enforce this commission.

Of the Colonies under Charles the first, and the Commonwealth. During the reign of Charles the first, the colonies were frequently alarmed with the report of some act of the English government, to abridge their freedom. Their enemies represented the people as aiming at an entire independence, and a plan was devised and nearly matured, to deprive the colonies of their charters, and place over them a general governor. Probably the dispute and civil war in England, were among the causes which frustrated that plan. After king Charles was beheaded, and the government of England assumed the shape of a commonwealth, the colonies were relieved from their apprehensions, and the Protector, Cromwell, appeared to favour the views and interests of the settlers in America. Under his administration however, the parliament passed an act for encouraging the commerce of England, which was the ground work of the famous Navigation Act in 1660, which restrained the trade of the colonies, and was the means of drying up the sources of their prosperity.

Of the state of the Colonies under Charles the second. Upon the restoration of the monarchy in England, the colonies submitted, and sent addresses, congratulating *the king on his* accession to the throne. Connecticut *and Rhode-Island* obtained charters with ample privi*leges, and so* well pleased was the king with the respectful manner in which they treated him, that he wrote

letters giving most flattering assurances that he would protect the colonies in all their chartered rights He also appointed commissioners to examine the state of the colonies, and decide controversies between them. The king required that the laws derogatory to the crown should be repealed; that free liberty should be given to use the common prayer, and the service of the church of England; that all persons of honest lives, should be admitted to the sacrament, and their children to baptism; and that magistrates should be chosen and freemen admitted, without regard to opinions and professions of religion. The king required also that every person in the plantations should take the oath of allegiance to his majesty.—These requisitions gave the colonies some alarm, and indicated that the king was apprehensive the people intended to become independent. The union of the four colonies was regarded by the crown with an eye of jealousy, but the people assured the king's agents, that it was not intended for the purpose of casting off a dependence on England.

Of the Opposition to the Navigation Act. No measure of the English court or parliament excited more discontent, or was resisted with more firmness, by the first settlers, than the law for regulating the trade of England and the colonies, first enacted by the parliament, in 1651, during the administration of Cromwell, and in 1660, re-enacted by the king and parliament, with considerable additions. By this act, all trade with England and the colonies was restricted to English ships, the master of which and three fourths at least of the seamen, were to be English; and the colonies were prohibited from shipping many of their most valuable articles to any ports but to England, where they were to be landed, before they could be sent to market in any other country. This regulation threw the advantages of the colonial trade into the hands of the English; but deprived the colonies of their best markets.—The colonies opposed the execution of it many years; at *length, in 1680,* governor Leet of Connecticut submit*ted, and took* the oath required. But Massachusee*was more obstinate,* and her opposition was one of

reasons for vacating her charter. She finally submitted to the regulations, by passing a law requiring them to be observed, but denied the right of parliament to bind the colonies to observe them.

Of the Agency of Randolph. The king, determined to enforce the Navigation Act, sent over Edward Randolph, with power to inspect the conduct of the colonies, to make seizures for breaches of the act, and in short, to be a common informer. This man made it his business to collect charges against the colonies, and return to England to excite the jealousy of the English government. In this manner the way was prepared for annulling the charters of the colonies, and the appointment of Sir Edmund Andross, as governor general over New-England and New-York. This was the consequence of a determination in the king and ministry to check and subdue the growing spirit of independence in the colonies; but Andross overacted his part; and his tyrannical proceedings only served to alienate the people's affections from the parent state, and prepare the way for that independence which the king dreaded.

Of the Colonies under King William and Queen Ann. The colonies under Charles and James, had been despoiled of their charters, and suffered the tyranny of Andross with a spirit of just indignation. King William was more favourable to the colonies; Connecticut resumed her old charter, and Massachusetts obtained a new one, in which the king retained the power of appointing the governor, and the governor was vested with the power of negativing the choice of councillors, made by the house of representatives. It was supposed that this power in the king would secure a predominant influence to the crown over the legislature and colony. But it had the contrary effect, and created a fruitful source of animosity between the two branches of the legislature, which ended only with the revolution.—The *governor and council* were the advocates for the extension *of royal prerogative*; the house of representatives *was confided in*, as the guardian of the rights of the *people.* In queen Ann's reign a new attempt was

made to abolish the colony charters, and place the appointment of a general governor in the crown, but it was frustrated.

Of Controversies in the Colony of New-York. The government of New-York, like that of Massachusetts, was what was called a royal government; the king appointed the governor, who had the power of approving the speaker of the house of representatives. But in this kind of government the assembly was bound to provide the governor with his salary. This was an unceasing source of discord. When a good understanding did not subsist between the governor and the assembly, which often happened, the assembly would withhold a grant of the governor's salary, to compel him to give his assent to some favorite bill of their's—the governor, on the other hand, if he wished to obtain a large grant, or to carry some favorite point, would withhold his assent to their favorite bills, until they had complied with his wishes.

Of the Controversies in Pennsylvania. By the charter of Pennsylvania, the proprietary and his heirs and assigns, were governors of the province; the council and assembly were to be chosen by the freemen. But in sales of land, the proprietary not only took purchase-money, but reserved an annual quit-rent, with the pretext of furnishing the means of supporting the government with dignity. The proprietary himself seldom resided in America, but delegated a substitute, to act in the capacity of president or governor, who had a treble vote in enacting laws. In a few years, controversies arose between the governor and the assembly; and the governor prevailed on certain members to withdraw from the house, to prevent the passing of laws disagreeable to him. This the assembly voted to be treachery. In [illegible] that province was distracted by disputes between the governor and assembly, respecting supplies of [illegible]y, salaries, quit-rents, paper currency, and other matters, from the first settlement to the revolution.—A history of these dissensions, written by Dr. Franklin, forms a large volume.

Of the Controversies in Carolina. By the origi constitution of Carolina, the governor and princi civil officers were appointed or approved by the pro etors, in the Palatine's court in England. As early the year 1687, a controversy arose between gover Colleton and the house of assembly, respecting the t ure of lands and the payment of quit-rent. The g ernor demanded the rent, although not one acre land in a thousand was cultivated—the payment pro burdensome—and the people declined it. Hence a a contention, which did not end, till the assembly nounced the authority of the governor, and held ass blies in opposition to him. This ferment subsided a degree, under governors Ludwell and Archd But the interest of the proprietors, who urged for re and attempted to restrain the authority of the pe by repealing all laws that enlarged the powers assembly, or abridged their own, was so repugnan the wishes and demands of the colony, that it was possible to preserve harmony, and in 1719 the pe revolted.

Of the Dissolution of the Proprietors' Charter. people gave notice to governor Johnson of their in tion to throw off the yoke of the proprietors, ele deputies to the assembly, which was held in opposi to the governor's authority; and notwithstanding popularity and remonstrances, the assembly openly clared their intention to renounce the authority of proprietors, and submit to the crown. The gove attempted to dissolve the assembly, but they ord the proclamation to be torn from the marshal's h They proceeded to elect James Moore their gover and he was proclaimed with applauses. An acc of these proceedings being transmitted to England, Carolinians had a hearing before the council (the king being in Hanover) who decided tha prietors had done acts that amounted to a fo their charter, which was accordingly annulled and Carolina taken under royal government. *crown, in 1728,* purchased the property of seven o *owners, for* seventeen thousand five hundred pou

General Remarks on the foregoing Facts. From the history of the colonies, it appears that the principles of their opposition to the parent state, were mostly planted in the minds of the first settlers, or in their primitive constitutions of government. In New-England, an enmity to the ecclesiastical power of the English church naturally fostered an enmity to monarchy; and this enmity was increased by repeated attempts of the crown to establish its power and prerogatives in the colonies. This enmity gradually matured into habitual and systemized opposition, which was greatly encouraged and confirmed by the speculations on government found in the writings of Locke, Sidney and others. The authority of these authors was reinforced by the parliamentary discussions on royal prerogative and popular liberty, at the revolution in England. In the proprietary and royal governments, the endless contentions between the governors and assemblies, encouraged a spirit of investigation into the extent of the power of the crown, and formed the principle of opposition into habit. The open rupture therefore between Great-Britain and the colonies, was not a sudden effect of a tumultuous opposition to a particular act of parliament, but the effect of hostile principles and habits which had grown out of a long series of events, and which a few measures of the British government ripened into action.

Of the immediate Causes of the Revolution. The proceedings of the British parliament, which manifested a settled determination to keep America subject to the crown, and subservient to the interests of Great-Britain, were the direct causes of an opposition to her claims, which ended in an appeal to arms. As early as 1750, an act was passed in parliament, to encourge the exportation of iron in pigs and bars, from America to London; and to prevent the erecting of any mill in the colonies for slitting or rolling iron, or any plating forge, or furnace for making steel.—The purpose of the British government was to check the growth of manufactures in the colonies, and to compel them to export *their iron, and import* the manufactures of England. *This arbitrary law* was enforced, to the destruction of

some machines of the kinds mentioned, and the dissatisfaction of the colonies.

Of the Stamp Act. After the peace of 1763, the British parliament formed a plan of raising a revenue by taxing the colonies. The pretext for it, was to obtain indemnification for the great expenses of Great-Britain in defending the colonies, and to enable her to discharge the debt incurred in the preceding war. But a more influential motive, was to check the increasing spirit of opposition, which, it was apprehended, would, in time, mature into a revolt; the parliament, therefore, determined to assert its sovereignty and establish the immediate exercise of authority over the colonies. For this purpose, an act was passed for laying a duty on all paper, vellum or parchment, used in America, and declaring all writings on unstamped materials to be null and void. This act received the royal assent on the 22d of March, 1765.

Of the Reception of the Stamp Act in America. When the news of the stamp act reached the colonies, the people every where manifested alarm, and a determination to oppose its execution. The assembly of Virginia first declared its opposition to the act, by a number of spirited resolves; but Massachusetts took the lead in this important crisis, and maintained it in every stage of the subsequent revolution. In all the colonies however, the determined spirit of resistance prevented the execution of the act. The stamp-masters were burnt in effigy—and popular tumults succeeded. In Boston, the friends of the British measures, and the crown officers were insulted; their houses demolished; and among other damages, the populace destroyed a valuable collection of original papers, concerning the history of the colonies, which governor Hutchinson had made, and intended to publish. This loss was irrepairable. To render the opposition complete, the merchants associated, and agreed to a resolution not to import any more goods from Great-Britain, until the stamp law should be repealed.

Of the Principles in which the Parliament and the Colonies acted. The British parliament, previous to the re-

peal of the stamp law, passed an act declaring that "they had, and of right ought to have, power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever"—They alleged that the colonies were planted by their care, nourished by their indulgence, and protected by their arms, and their money—And therefore the colonies owed allegiance, subjection and gratitude to the parent state. The colonies denied very justly that they were planted by the British government. Not one of them was settled at the expense of the crown; but with a vast expense of individuals, and with hardships and sufferings beyond description or credibility. Nor did the government of England expend any money or furnish any force for protecting the colonies, for sixty years after the settlement of Plymouth. On the other hand, the government neglected the colonies, while feeble and poor; and did not extend a protecting arm, until the colonies had conquered and expelled several Indian tribes—had overcome the difficulties of settlement—had acquired a good degree of strength, and began to have a valuable commerce. Then the government of England lent assistance to defend the colonies, and secure to herself a beneficial trade.

Of the Grounds on which the Colonies opposed the Stamp Act. The colonies always acknowledged themselves subjects of the crown of Great-Britain, until the declaration of independence; and were most loyal and affectionate subjects, until the parliament asserted the right of laying internal taxes on them, without admitting them to a share of representation. The great principle, asserted by the friends of liberty in parliament, that "taxation and representation are inseparable," was universally embraced and maintained in America; and the colonies denied the right of the parliament to tax them without their consent. In vain did the ministry allege that a revenue raised in America would be expended in supporting government and defending the colonies. The assemblies wished not to have the taxes raised by Great-Britain, nor to be at her disposal.

Of the Congress at New-York. To give system and efficacy to the colonial opposition to the stamp act,

Massachusetts proposed a meeting of deputies from the several colonies, to be held at New-York in October 1765. Accordingly deputies from nine of the colonies assembled in congress at New-York, and after deliberation, agreed on a declaration of their rights and grievances—asserted their exemption from taxes not imposed by their own representatives—and sent a petition to the king, with memorials to both houses of parliament. This spirited opposition, seconded by the energetic eloquence of Mr. Pitt and other friends of America, produced a repeal of the stamp law, on the 18th of March 1766 The news of this event was received in America, with bonfires, ringing of bells, and other unusual demonstrations of joy.

Of the duties on Glass, Paper, Paints, and Tea. Not discouraged by the fate of the stamp act, the British ministry persisted in their design of raising a revenue in America; and in 1767, an act was passed, for laying duties on glass, painters colors, paper, and tea imported into the colonies To render the act effectual, a custom-house was directed to be established in America, with a board of commissioners to superintend the revenues, and to reside at Boston. These duties were small, but the colonies objected to the principle, rather than to the amount, of the tax; and remonstrated against the act. A second association was formed for suspending the importation and consumption of the goods on which the duties were charged, and other British manufactures. These measures of Massachusetts were adopted by the other colonies, and a circular letter from Boston had its influence in giving concert and consistency to the opinions and proceedings of the colonial assemblies This opposition, supported by petitions and remonstrances in January 1770, procured an abolition of all the duties, except that of three pence on every pound of tea.

Of the Causes of Smuggling. The enterprizing commercial spirit of the people in America, bore, with extreme impatience, the severe regulations imposed *on their trade,* which prevented their seeking the best *markets,* and poured all the profits of a thriving

commerce into the bosom of the parent state. So just and tyrannical were these restrictions consider that smuggling goods to evade the duties, was deem honourable and greatly encouraged.—In 1768, the re enue officers seized a sloop, in Boston harbour, for a tempts to smuggle wine. The populace assembl with a view to rescue the sloop, but she was moore under the protection of a British ship of war. The po pulace then attacked the houses of the commissioners who saved themselves by flight to the castle.

Of the first Armed Force sent to support the Acts o Parliament. The ministry, finding all mild efforts t establish their authority, in regard to a revenue, una vailing, sent four regiments of troops to be stationed a Boston to overawe the inhabitants, and assist the crow officers to enforce the obnoxious acts of parliament The arrival of these in 1768 gave no small uneasines to the colonies, but no opposition was then made.—Th ministry also gave orders to station armed ships i the principal ports to prevent smuggling. An armed schooner, called the Gaspee, was stationed in Prov idence river, where she was burnt in 1772 by an ex asperated populace. A large reward was offered fo the discovery of the offenders, but no discovery wa made.

Of further Measures to enforce Obedience. In 1769 the parliament passed an act to revive the provision of a statute enacted in the arbitrary reign of Henry 8th; by which persons charged with treason in any o the colonies, might be arrested and sent to England fo trial. The gross injustice of this act, augmented th clamor against the ministry in Great Britain, and serv ed only to exasperate still more, the minds of the A mericans. This impolitic act alone would have raise a rebellion in the colonies. Indeed the spirit of oppo sition increased, in proportion to the determination o the British ministry to compel submission, and th differences became irreconcileable.

Of the Massacre in 1770. To a free and high spirit d people, the presence of an insolent military, coul ot *but be extremely* irksome and provoking: an

was not possible that harmony could long subsist between the inhabitants of Boston, and the British troops. A slight affray took place between them on the second of March 1770; but on the night of the fifth, the enmity of the parties burst forth in violence and blood. A body of troops being ordered to disperse a number of the citizens of Boston, who were collected in Cornhill, the populace pelted them with stones; upon which the troops fired among them killed three and wounded five, two of whom died. With great difficulty, the soldiers were saved from the fury of an enraged populace. But this outrage enflamed the animosity of the Americans against Great Britain, and hastened a more important crisis. To commemorate this melancholy tragedy, an anniversary oration was instituted in Boston, and was annually pronounced by some distinguished citizen on the 5th of March, till the close of the revolution.

Of the Destruction of Tea at Boston. Although the duties laid on commodities imported into America had been taken off, except the duty on tea, yet the ministry persisted in maintaining the right to raise a revenue in the colonies; and to establish that principle, granted permission to the East India company to ship to America, a large quantity of tea, charged with the duty. This finess of the ministry did not succeed.—The Americans, determined to resist the principle of taxation in every shape, opposed the landing of the tea—in some ports they obliged the consignees to resign their employment, and compelled the ships to return to England without landing their cargoes. In Boston, the populace had less temper, and a party disguised in the dress of Indians went on board the tea ships, and threw the tea into the sea. This transaction, which amounted to an open resistance of the government of Great Britain, and led to more energetic measures, on the part of that government, happened in the year 1773.

On the Measures of Parliament relating to Massachusetts. In pursuance of the ministerial plan of reducing Massachusetts to obedience, an act of parliament was passed for regulating the government of that province;

by which the powers of the people were abridged, and the officers of government made dependent on the crown for their appointments and salaries. By another act, persons indicted for murder or other capital offence, might, if the governor should think an impartial trial could not be had in the colony, be sent to Great Britain to be tried. By another act, an attempt was made to strengthen the interest and power of the crown in America, by enlarging the province of Canada, and granting unusual privileges to the Catholics. All which measures tended only to increase the jealousy of the colonies, by developing the views of the ministry.

Of the Boston Port Bill. In 1774, the parliament, with a view to punish the refractory province of Massachusetts, and especially the inhabitants of Boston, as also to bring them to submission, passed an act to shut the port of Boston, and to restrain all intercourse with the town by water. The government and public offices were removed to Salem, and it was expected by the ministry that Salem would be pleased with the prospect of enjoying the advantages of being the seat of government and the center of trade. But this miserable stratagem had no effect, but to irritate the inhabitants of Salem, who disdained to thrive on the ruins of Boston. These proceedings, added to the detection of some letters which had been written by the crown officers in Boston, advising to more decisive measures against the colonies, raised a ferment in America that left little hope of a reconciliation.

Of the Committee of Correspondence. During the transactions which have been related, some of the most able and distinguished patriots in Massachusetts, who had long seen the necessity of a separation from Great Britain, but who wished, if possible, to avoid an alternative that must involve the country in a sanguinary contest, formed themselves into a committee of correspondence, for the purpose of obtaining and diffusing correct information, for uniting opinions and acting in *unison with their* fellow patriots in other colonies. *This committee* received advices regularly from their *friends in Great Britain*, which enabled them to

prepared, and to prepare the public mind, for every exigency. Similar committees were established in all the other New-England colonies, and became the ground-work of their future union.

Of the arrival of General Gage, and his reception. In May 1774, General Gage arrived in Boston, with the commissions of Governor of Massachusetts, and commander in chief of the British forces. At the moment of his arrival, the people were in great agitation, at the news of the port bill; notwithstanding which, the general was received with respect and treated with politeness. Shortly after, arrived two more regiments, with artillery and military stores, indicative of the determination of the British government to reduce the colonies to submission by the force of arms.

Of the Conduct of the Colonies on this occasion. When the Americans saw, by the measures of the British government, that reconciliation was no longer to be expected, and that their rights were to be defended by an appeal to force, deploring the awful event, but confident of the justice of their cause, and the rectitude of their purposes, they set apart a day of humiliation and prayer to invoke the Supreme Being and manifest their dependence on him for support in the arduous contest. And as the port bill had put an end to the trade of Boston and thus deprived the inhabitants of the means of subsistence, the inhabitants of the colonies, opened the hand of charity, and sent liberal contributions to their relief. At the same time the committee of correspondence framed an agreement, called a solemn league and covenant, by which they determined to suspend all intercourse with Great Britain, until their chartered rights should be restored. In like manner, agreements were formed in all parts of America, neither to import nor to consume British goods.

Of the Proceedings of General Gage. Soon after General Gage arrived, he was addressed by certain gentlemen of the council, but the address containing severe reflections on his predecessor, he would not receive it. Observing the temper of the people, he began to think of measures of defence; and directed Boston neck to

be fortified. He also seized on the powder lodged in the public store at Charleston. He issued a proclamation to oppose the solemn league and covenant, pronouncing it an unlawful and traiterous combination. But all this served only to inflame and irritate the public mind, and bring his authority into contempt.

Of the origin of Provincial Congresses. General Gage had summoned the assembly of Massachusetts to convene at Salem; but on further reflection, had countermanded the summons. The counter-order was deemed illegal, and the members convened. The governor not meeting them, they organized themselves into a provincial congress, which formed a plan of defense—resolved to enroll a body of men, to be prepared for marching at a minute's notice, and therefore called *minute-men*—they appointed general officers—a committee of safety, to act as a kind of executive council—and took measures to collect supplies and military stores, at Worcester and Concord. After an adjournment, for a short time, they again met, determined on raising twelve thousand men—sent agents to the neighboring colonies, to request their co-operations, and committees of the New-England colonies met and agreed on a plan of operations. At the same time, measures were taken to combine all the colonies into a firm union, and for this purpose, it was agreed that delegates from the several colonies should meet in a general congress.

Of the General Congress. On the 5th of September, 1774, delegates from twelve colonies convened in Philadelphia, to deliberate on the most important questions that ever engaged the anxious solicitude of men. The delegates were appointed by the colonial legislatures; or where none existed, the appointments were made by select meetings and associations of citizens. They were men of the most distinguished character and talents, and enjoyed the public confidence. Before the meeting of the general congress, a convention of *deputies from the towns* in Suffolk county, in Massachusetts, had declared that no obedience was due to the late acts of the British parliament, but that those act

ought to be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America. This declaration was approved by the general congress, which resolved, that if attempts should be made to carry into effect the obnoxious acts of parliament, all America ought to unite with Massachusetts in their opposition.

Of the Proceedings of the first Congress. The great council of America, solicitous to preserve peace with the parent state, but determined to be free, adopted measures which presented to the British ministry the olive branch with one hand and the sword with the other; submitting it to their choice to withdraw their unconstitutional claims, or to meet the most determined resistance. They addressed General Gage, stating the grievances of Massachusetts, and their resolution to support that province in her opposition; intreating him to forbear hostilities, and not preclude the hope of a reconciliation. They published a declaration of the rights of the colonies, one of which was an exemption from taxes imposed upon them by a legislature in which they were not represented. They however consented to submit to all the general regulations of commerce, intended for the benefit of the whole British empire. They declared several acts of parliament to be infringements of the rights of the colonies, and a repeal of them necessary to a reconciliation. They entered into an agreement to discontinue the importation of British goods; they sent a petition to the king, and addresses to the British nation, to the Canadians, and to the colonies.

Of the consequent Proceedings of Parliament. When the proceedings of the American congress were laid before parliament, lord Chatham introduced some conciliatory propositions, but they were rejected by a large ministerial majority; and a joint address of both houses to the king, declared that a rebellion actually existed in the province of Massachusetts. The houses therefore *besought* his Majesty to take the most effectual measures to enforce due obedience to the laws and authority of the supreme legislature; and assured him that they were determined to support him in maintaining the

just rights of the crown. From this moment, an appeal to arms became unavoidable, and both parties prepared for the conflict.

Of the Condition of the Parties at the beginning of the War. When the Americans determined to oppose their military strength to that of Great Britain, the disparity was such as might well appal the bravest heart. Great Britain possessed immense wealth and resources, her navy and merchantmen covered the ocean, her armies were considerable for numbers and discipline, her military and naval officers were of renowned skill and experience—great was her power, and still greater the pride of her sovereignty. The colonies, on the other hand, were destitute of all these advantages—they had no general government vested with powers to control the contending interests of thirteen distinct jurisdictions—the colonial governments were mostly dissolved—No skilful officers, no disciplined troops, no muskets proper for an army, no cannon nor ammunition, no camp equipage, no armed ships—nothing but consciousness of upright views, persuasion of the justice of their cause, dauntless courage, and confidence in the God of hosts, encouraged the Americans to hazard the unequal contest.

Of the Measures of Parliament preparatory to Hostilities. In the winter and spring of 1775, the ministry headed by lord North, procured an act of parliament to prohibit the New-England colonies from carrying on the fisheries, and from trading with the British possessions in Europe and the West-Indies. These restraints were, by a subsequent bill, extended to the other colonies. These acts were accompanied with bills for an augmentation of the sea and land forces. The army in Boston was increased to ten thousand men, which number was deemed sufficient to reduce the rebellious colonies to submission. At the same time lord North introduced a motion for adopting what he called a conciliatory plan, but which in fact held out a lure *to tempt* the colonies to divide from each other, by *exempting from* parliamentary duties and taxation, such *of them* as would contribute to the common de-

fense, by raising their proportion of money in t own way.

Of the Colonial Preparations for War. A Bri proclamation forbidding the exportation of arms ammunition to the colonies, was no sooner recei than the most vigorous efforts were made in Ame to procure supplies. A high bounty on the mate and manufacture of powder, caused mills for mal it to spring up in all parts of the country as by chantment. Ships and money were dispatched eretly to Europe to purchase and import arms and munition. In some places the cannon belonging to crown, were seised. The militia was put under cipline ; associations and committees were e where formed to carry into effect the recommei tions of congress ; and in the popular enthusi their resolves and advisory proposals had the e of laws.

Of the Skirmish at Lexington. An attempt of a ty of British troops to take some cannon which v lodged at Salem, threatened to open the awful s of hostilities, but the persuasion of a worthy cle man induced the provincial troops to withdraw t opposition, at the drawbridge in the town ; the E ish troops marched over, and not finding the can which had been previously removed, they marc back unmolested. But in April, a body of troops ordered to march to Concord to destroy the mili stores, which the Americans had collected at place. The march, though in the night, was dis ered, and early in the morning of the 19th of month, about seventy of the Lexington militia ass bled on the green. Major Pitcairn, who comm ed the British troops, rode up to the militia, and dressing them by the name of *rebels*, ordered t to disperse. Not being obeyed, he discharged pistol, and ordered the troops to fire. Eight men v *killed, and* some others wounded. Thus began *sanguinary* contest which dismembered the British *pire, and ended* in the establishment of the ind *denee of the* colonies.

Of the return of the Troops to Boston. Having dispersed the militia at Lexington, the British troops proceeded to Concord, destroyed some flour and other stores, and returned to Boston. But the exasperated patriots in the vicinity collected, and with such arms as they had, annoyed the troops on their march, by firing from behind fences and walls; and it is doubtful whether the detachment would not have been all killed or taken, had not a reinforcement arrived and joined that body at Lexington on its retreat On the part of the Americans, fifty men were killed, and a number wounded. Of the British forces sixty-five were killed, and one hundred and eighty-six wounded.

Of the measures taken by the Colonies after the beginning of Hostilities. The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was in session, at the time of the affair at Lexington, published a manifesto, addressed to the people of Great Britain, exculpating the Americans, complaining of the ravages of the British troops, declaring their loyalty to the crown, but protesting that they would not submit to the tyranny of the ministry. They declared General Gage to be disqualified for governor of the province, and that he ought to be treated as an enemy. They also passed votes for supplying the army with pay and clothing The general congress met in May, and resolved to raise an army, and issue bills of credit to defray the expenses of the war. They now took the appellation of the United Colonies, and recommended a day of humiliation to implore the blessings of heaven on their sovereign the king of Great Britain, and the interposition of divine aid to remove their grievances, and restore harmony between the parent state and the colonies, on constitutional terms.

Of the Entrenchment on Breed's Hill. After the skirmish on the 19th of April, General Gage issued a proclamation declaring the Americans in rebellion, and denouncing against them the severest vengeance; offering however to pardon all who should return to their allegiance, except some of the principal foment-

ers of opposition; as if he expected the American would abandon their leaders to the gallows. In the mean time, a considerable army was collected in the towns near Boston, and it was determined to annoy and if possible, dislodge the British forces in Boston. For this purpose, a detachment was ordered on the night of the 16th of June, 1775, to throw up a breast work on Bunker's hill, near Charlestown. By some mistake, the troops entrenched on Breed's hill, nearer to Boston, and so silent and active were they, that by the return of light, they had nearly completed a strong redoubt, without being discovered by the enemy.

Of the Battle on Breed's Hill. No sooner had the dawn of the morning enabled the enemy to discover the advance of the Americans, than a severe cannonade from the ships in the river, announced the determination of the British commander, to oppose the progress of the works. But this not interrupting the Americans, a body of about three thousand men under General Howe, landed under protection of the shipping, and advanced to attack the works. The Americans permitted the enemy to approach within ten or twelve rods, and then discharged such a shower of musket shot as to throw the troops into disorder and oblige them to fall back. Being rallied and advancing a second time, a second fire did such execution, as to compel the British troops to retreat. Terrible was the carnage, and so disheartened were the enemy, that the officers found it difficult to rally the troops. At length they were brought to charge the entrenchments with fixed bayonets, and the Americans who had no bayonets, were forced to abandon the works.

Of the burning of Charlestown, and event of the action. When the British troops first landed, orders had been given to set fire to Charlestown, with a view to cover their approach; and almost the whole town, consisting of four hundred houses, was laid in ashes. This barbarous deed proved of no use to the enemy, but served to exasperate the Americans. After a heroic defence

of the hill, the American troops destitute of bayonets and of ammunition, and overpowered by numbers, retreated over Charlestown Neck, exposed to a raking fire from the Glasgow ship of war, and two floating batteries, from which however they suffered no great annoyance. Severe was the loss of British officers and soldiers in this action, amounting to more than a thousand men. The loss on the part of the Americans was less considerable; not amounting to a hundred killed, and three hundred wounded and missing. Among the killed however was general Warren a brave officer and firm patriot.

Of the Surprise of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. The importance of securing the passes into Canada had occurred to some persons soon after the action at Lexington. To effect this, different parties of men were dispatched to gain possession of the principal forts on the lakes. So secret was the expedition under colonel Allen and colonel Arnold, that they surprised and took the commander of Ticonderoga in his bed. Colonel Warner, with a company, took Crownpoint, and in these two forts, the Americans found cannon and military stores, which were greatly wanted. In the mean time, the British ministry employed means to inlist a body of Canadians into their service, and sent twenty thousand stands of arms, to governor Carleton at Quebeck, for the use of the troops. But the inhabitants declined taking any part in the contest. An inhuman attempt of the ministry to engage the savages to fall on the frontiers, and annoy the colonies, proved equally unsuccessful.

Of the Proceedings of the Congress in 1775. In May 1775 the congress met at Philadelphia, agreeable to adjournment, and delegates from Georgia completed the representation of the colonies. One of their acts was a manifesto, justifying the necessity of taking arms in defence of the colonial rights, which was written in a masterly style, and calculated to make a deep impression on the minds of their constituents. They sent another petition to the king, but it was treated with contempt. They directed an emission of bills of

credit, not to exceed two millions of dollars, and t
faith of the union was pledged for their redemp
They established a post-office under the direction
doctor Franklin. They directed twelve companies
riflemen to be enlisted,—instituted a general hosp
—and appointed general officers

Of the appointment of a Commander in Chief. It
was a point of immense importance, to select, for th
supreme command of the American army, a person
military talents adequate to the task, and of qual
ties adapted to conciliate the affections and confiden
of men of different habits and education, and not bi
from strong local prejudices. Fortunately such a
character was found and selected. GEORGE WASH
INGTON, a delegate from Virginia, was appointed
commander in chief of the American army, on the 15th
of June 1775. This gentleman had been employed a
an officer in the war with France, and had displayed
eminent bravery and talents. To his experience in
military affairs, he united sound judgment, extensiv
knowledge of men, perfect probity, pure morals, a
grave deportment, indefatigable industry, easy manners,
strict politeness, a commanding person, cool bravery,
unshaken fortitude, and a prudence that baffled and
confounded his enemies.

Of the taking of St. Johns. In pursuance of the pla
of guarding the frontiers by taking Canada, or crip
pling the British power in that province, general
Schuyler and Montgomery were sent with a body o
troops to attack the forts on the borders of Canada
But general Schuyler returning to hold a treaty wit
the Indians the command was left with general Mont
gomery. A small fort at Chamblee was first taken
where a supply of powder was obtained, and siege wa
laid to St. Johns. Some attempts were made by gov
ernor Carleton to relieve the garrison; but in vain
and the garrison, amounting to seven hundred men
surrendered on the third of November, 1775. Thi
was succeeded by the surrender of Montreal. Th
only misfortune that attended these enterprizes, wa
the loss of Colonel Allen, who, engaging in a ro

attempt on Montreal, with a small party, was made prisoner, and sent in irons to England.

Of the Attack on Quebeck and Defeat of the Americans. Colonel Arnold had been sent with eleven hundred men to penetrate to Quebeck by the river Kennebec, and the wilderness. After a most difficult march, in which fatigue and famine reduced his men to about four hundred, the remainder being obliged to return, he joined general Montgomery before Quebeck, in November. Preparations were made to besiege the city, and some batteries opened, but the metal was not heavy enough to make an impression General Montgomery therefore determined upon an escalade. The army, small in number, and exposed to most inclement weather, made the attack on the last day of the year 1775, in four divisions, two of which attacks were feints to deceive the garrison. General Montgomery entered the first barrier, but in attempting the second was killed, with most of his attending officers. The division commanded by colonel Arnold, took a two gun battery, but the commander was wounded and compelled to leave the field. His men fought like heroes for three hours, but being surrounded, and seeing no hope of relief, they surrendered prisoners of war.

Of the burning of Norfolk. At the commencement of the troubles in America, violent altercations between lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia, and the assembly, had induced the governor to dissolve the legislature, and to refuse calling another. A convention was therefore assembled in March, 1775, consisting of two delegates from a county, who exercised the powers of government. On which lord Dunmore seized and conveyed on board of a ship, the powder in the magazine at Williamsburg. The people assembled in arms and demanded the powder, or its value, which the governor promised, and an apparent reconciliation took place. But the governor alarmed by popular meetings, sent his family on board of a ship of war, and issued a proclamation charging the magistrates of Virginia with treason and rebellion. In June, the

governor summoned the assembly, and attempted to persuade them to accept of lord North's conciliatory propositions; but finding them inflexible, he withdrew on board of the ship Many irritations on the part of the country people, and the governor's adherents, at length produced hostilities, and by order of lord Dunmore, the flourishing town of Norfolk was laid in ashes, on the first of January 1776.

Of the Dissolution of the Colonial Government. During the year 1775, the old governments of the colonies were all dissolved. The royal governors and all the crown officers, adhering to the British measures, became odious to the people; and when the popular ferment became violent, they were obliged to leave the country, or suspend their functions. From that time temporary conventions were held for the purpose of administering the laws and making regulations to meet the public occasions. Many adherents to Great Britain, however, remained in the country—some of them, men of principle, were quiet citizens: others took part with the British troops, and by secret machinations or open hostility, aided and directed their operations. In some of the colonies, the British adherents were numerous and powerful; and contributed to weaken the opposition to the British arms.

Of the Military Operations in and near Boston. General Washington, soon after his appointment, repaired to the army, accompanied with general Lee, and established his quarters at Cambridge. On his journey, and at camp, he was received and welcomed with the most profound respect: and his presence inspired a degree of confidence which was an auspicious presage of his future influence. The army investing Boston, amounted to about fifteen thousand men; but was destitute of good arms, ammunition, clothing and experienced officers. The first and a most difficult task, was, to organize and discipline the troops. All the powder in the army amounted only to nine rounds *to a soldier;* and to deceive the country with hope *and the British* general with fears, casks of saw

were transported to the camp, under the name of powder. A small supply from New-Jersey, and the cargo of a brig, the first prize taken by captain Manly, afforded a temporary and almost miraculous relief.

Of the Destruction of Falmouth. The inhabitants of Falmouth, a thriving town in Maine, in compliance with the resolves of the provincial congress, to prevent the royalists from removing their effects, obstructed the loading of a mast-ship, which drew upon them the vengeance of the British admiral. An order was given to burn the town, which, after a short notice to the inhabitants, to remove their effects, was barbarously executed; and most of the town was levelled with the dust, on the 18th of October 1775. Such indignities and inhuman modes of warfare added fuel to the popular flame of opposition, and rendered it inextinguishable. In November following, the government of Massachusetts authorized letters of mark and reprisal, and instituted courts of admiralty for the trial and condemnation of prizes. Immediately the sea swarmed with American privateers, which captured vast numbers of valuable British ships, and supplied the Americans with all kinds of goods and military stores.

Of the Evacuation of Boston. The want of powder and the necessity of re-inlisting the troops, whose time of service had expired, rendered the army at Cambridge inactive, during the summer and autumn of 1775. It was however the intention of general Washington to avail himself of a bridge of ice over Charles river in the following winter, to march his troops into Boston, and dislodge the enemy. But a council of war advised not to make the attempt. The mode of attack was therefore varied. For the purpose of diverting the attention of the enemy, a severe cannonade upon the town, was commenced, on the 2d of March; and on the night of the 4th, a battery was erected on a hill at Dorchester point, which was near enough to annoy the British troops in Boston. The British commander prepared to attack the works, but a storm prevented, until the works were deemed so

strong as to render it inexpedient. The only alternative then was, to quit the town, which was done with great alacrity; and on the 17th March 1776, general Washington marched into Boston, to the unspeakable joy of its oppressed inhabitants.

Of the Proceedings of Parliament in the spring of 1776. The news of the affair at Breed's hill, determined the ministry to employ a powerful force to reduce the colonies in 1776. For this purpose they obtained an act of parliament, to justify them in taking into pay and introducing into the British dominions, sixteen thousand German troops, which, with the British regiments, constituted a force destined for America, of about fifty thousand men. At the same session, an act passed to prohibit all trade and intercourse between Great-Britain and the colonies. This law was violently opposed by the English merchants, but without effect. One clause of the act authorized the seizure and condemnation of all American property, on the high seas, and what was, beyond example inhuman, the bill authorized British subjects to compel men, taken on board of American vessels, to fight against their own countrymen.

Of the Steps preparatory to Independence. In the winter of 1775—6, few men in America had ever thought of a final separation of the colonies from the dominion of Great-Britain. The great body of the people would have been startled at the proposition. Certain leading men probably had long foreseen and contemplated the event; but some previous steps were necessary to prepare the public mind for a measure involving in its consequences, the fate of millions. At this, time Thomas Payne, an Englishman of low birth, who possessed a popular talent at writing, and no small share of sophistry, and who before he debased himself by infidelity and licentious principles, was much respected, ushered into the world a number of papers, signed Common Sense, to prove the necessity and expedience of a declaration of independence. He was doubtless impelled to this and supported by eminent characters. The continent was electrified by his writ-

ings—the minds of people were prepared for the great event.

Of the Declaration of Independence. The news of the acts of Parliament, by which war was declared against the colonies, and the inhabitants put out of the protection of the British government, afforded a favorable opportunity to take the decisive step of severing the bands of connection between the parent state and the colonies. The motion for this purpose was made in congress by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, and after full discussion, the question was carried by a great majority. On the memorable 4th of July 1776, the congress, after enumerating the causes which impelled the colonies to the measure, made and published a manifesto, or solemn declaration, by which they asserted that "These United Colonies are and of right ought to be FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES," appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, and pledging to each other, for the support of independence, their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.

Of the Attack of Sullivan's Island. Early in 1776, a squadron of British ships, under Admiral Parker, with a body of land forces on board, appeared before Charleston, in South Carolina, with a view to take posession and make an impression on the southern states. An attempt had been made in winter, by a party of British troops and royalists, to penetrate into North-Carolina, but it was repelled with bravery by the militia. In June the British ships were brought to bear upon Sullivan's island, which commands the passage to Charleston, and the attack commenced. But the fire was returned with great effect from the fort, which was commanded by colonel Moultrie. The ships were shattered and obliged to abandon the attack, with a heavy loss of men. The squadron soon departed for New-York.

Of the retreat from Canada. After the defeat at Quebeck, *the Americans* continued the siege, through the *winter; but the small* pox broke out among them, and *weakened their* exertions. Early in the spring, gene-

ral Carleton received large reinforcements, and the Americans were obliged to retreat. General Thompson attacked a body of troops at the Three Rivers, but was defeated and taken prisoner. After which the troops demolished the forts at Chamblee and St. Johns, and proceeded to Crownpoint. The British forces in Canada amounted to thirteen thousand men, but not having boats or shipping, they were unable to cross the lake, and their operations were suspended till autum. During the summer, the Americans were reinforced, to the number of fourteen thousand men, who were employed in strengthening the works at Ticonderoga, and in raising fortifications on a hill on the opposite side of the Lake, which they called Mount-Independence. But in autum, one half the army was disabled by a violent ague and fever, and a malignant dysentery. In October, the armed vessels of the parties came to action, and the Americans were defeated, but it being late, the British troops retired into Canada for the winter.

Of the Operations at New-York. As soon as Boston was evacuated, general Lee had been sent to New-York to prepare to repel the British forces, which general Washington supposed, would be directed to occupy that important and central position. The main army followed, and took up their quarters on York Island. In June the British fleet arrived at the Hook, a point of land at the entrance of the bay or harbour, having on board thirty-five thousand troops, a body of cavalry, and military apparatus of every kind. General Washington could oppose to this force not more than seventeen thousand men, most of them without experience or discipline, and weakened by a malignant dysentery. In this situation, a line of fortifications was erected on Long-Island, and such other preparations made to resist the enemy, as exigencies would permit. Before the commencement of hostilities, lord Howe, the British admiral, sent a letter to general Washington, to offer terms of accommodation; but the letter being addressed to George Washington, Esq. the commander, with becoming dignity, declined receiving it

or any writing, unless directed to him in his true character.

Of the Adjutant General's Interview and the action on Long-Island. General Howe, the commander of the land forces, notwithstanding the fate of his brother's letter, sent his adjutant general Patterson, with a letter directed to George Washington, &c. &c. &c. This indignity was also repelled. After some conversation, in which General Washington observed, that the proposed conditions of reconciliation amounted to little more than an offer of pardon, and as the Americans had committed no offence they wanted no pardon, the adjutant general departed, and both parties prepared for action. On the 22d of August, the British troops landed on the south-west side of Long-Island, near Utrecht, and a party gained the rear of the American forces. On the 27th of the month, the attack commenced; but the Americans being surrounded, and exposed to the fire of the Hessians in front, and of the British regulars in rear, were totally defeated. Some regiments forced their way through the enemy with great loss; but a large part fell in action or became prisoners. The Americans stated their loss at twelve hundred; the British stated it at three thousand. General Sullivan and lord Sterling fell into the hands of the enemy, whose loss was not more than three or four hundred.

Of the Retreat from Long-Island. After this severe defeat, General Washington, with the advice of a council of war, ordered a retreat from Long-Island. On the night of the 29th, this was effected with a success that was deemed a mereiful interposition of heaven. Within a single night, an army of nine thousand men, with their artillery, tents, and baggage, was transported to New-York over a difficult ferry of a mile in breadth, while the British army was encamped within six hundred yards, and did not discover the retreat, till too late to annoy the Americans. Soon after this event, captain Nathan Hale of Connecticut, belonging to colonel Knowlton's regiment, was employed as a spy to gain information of the enemy's situation and designs. He had entered and examined their camp, but on his re-

turn, was taken, and the evidence of his employment being clear, he was executed.—Thus a brave officer and worthy citizen fell a victim to his ardent patriotism, lamenting that he had but one life to lose for his country.

Of the consequences of the Defeat on Long-Island. Lord Howe, under an impression that the defeat on Long-Island would induce congress to comply with his terms, dismissed general Sullivan on his parole, with a message to congress, requesting a conference with some of their members. Accordingly three gentlemen were appointed, who repaired to Staten Island. But as the committee declined treating, in any other character, than that of the representatives of independent states, and lord Howe could not receive them in that capacity, the interview closed with mere compliments. The enemy then passed up the east river, and landed a party at Turtle Bay, killed Colonel Knowlton and dispersed his troops. A larger party proceeded and landed at Frogs Neck; and a considerable action took place ot White Plains. In danger of being surrounded, general Washington was compelled to abandon York-Island; leaving a garrison in fort Washington; but this was assaulted and taken soon after, with the loss of more than two thousand prisoners. Fort Lee on the west side of the Hudson was abandoned, and the enemy remained masters of York-Island, Long Island and Staten Island. Soon after general Howe took possession of New-York, the city was set on fire, by what means is not known, and that part of it west of Broadway, was reduced to ashes.

Of the Retreat of General Washington and his victory at Trenton. The American army being greatly reduced by the loss of men taken prisoners, and by the departure of men whose inlistments had expired, general Washington was obliged to retreat towards Philadelphia; general Howe, exulting in his successes, pursued him notwithstanding the weather was severely cold. To add to the disasters of the Americans, general Lee was surprized and taken prisoner at Basken-ridge. In this gloomy state of affairs, many persons

joined the British cause and took protections. But a small band of heroes checked the tide of British success. A division of Hessians had advanced to Trenton, where they reposed in security General Washington was on the opposite side of the Delaware, with about three thousand men, many of whom were without shoes or convenient clothing; and the river was covered with floating ice. But the general knew the importance of striking some successful blow, to animate the expiring hopes of the country; and on the night of December 25th, crossed the river, and fell on the enemy by surprize, and took the whole body consisting of about nine hundred men. A few were killed, among whom was colonel Rahl the commander.

Of the Victory at Princeton. On the 2d of January 1777, lord Cornwallis appeared near Trenton, with a strong body of troops. Skirmishing took place, and impeded the march of the British army, until the Americans had secured their artillery and baggage; when they retired to the southward of the creek, and repulsed the enemy in their attempt to pass the bridge. As general Washington's force was not sufficient to meet the enemy, and his situation was critical, he determined, with the advice of the council of war, to attempt a stratagem. He gave orders for the troops to light fires in their camp, [which were intended to deceive the enemy,] and be prepared to march. Accordingly at twelve o'clock at night the troops left the ground, and by a circuitous march, eluded the vigilance of the enemy, and early in the morning appeared at Princeton. A smart action ensued, but the British troops gave way. A party took refuge in the college, a building with strong stone walls, but were forced to surrender. The enemy lost in killed, wounded and prisoners, about five hundred men. The Americans lost but few men; but among them was a most valuable officer, general Mercer.

Of the close of the Campaign of 1776. The bold and decisive measures of the American general, surprized and confounded his enemies. The British were cantoned for the winter at Brunswick and Amboy, whe

they were watched by the American army and the active militia of New-Jersey. The troops in the American service however were few in number, not more than fifteen hundred, who kept in check, a formidable British army, during the winter. General Washington, whose powers had before been limited, was invested, in this critical juncture, with supreme and unlimited command, which he exercised for the public safety. Congress also made great exertions to rouse the spirits of the people by a bold and energetic address—and they adopted measures for raising an army for three years or during the war; offering large bounties and encouragements. They formed a confederation to be adopted by the states, as a bond of union, and recommended to the several states to form constitutions for their own government, which was accordingly done in this and the following year. They also sent agents to Europe to solicit the friendship and aid of foreign powers.

Of the Opening of the Campaign of 1777. In March 1777, a detachment of British troops destroyed the stores and forage belonging to the United States at Peekskill. In April, general Tryon, with three thousand men, landed in Connecticut between Fairfield and Norwalk, advanced to Danbury, burnt the continental stores, which were valuable, and most of the town, and retreated to the shipping. On their return, Generals Wooster, Arnold and Silliman, with such of the militia as could be hastily collected, harassed them and killed a considerable number. The Americans lost a number of men, and that veteran and deserving officer, general Wooster. In May, Colonel Meigs, a brave and enterprizing officer, with 170 men, passed over to Long Island, destroyed the shipping and stores collected for the British at Sag-Harbor, and took ninety prisoners, without the loss of a man. In July, colonel Barton of Rhode Island, with a few volunteers, crossed the Narraganset at night, surprised and took prisoner General Prescot.

Of the Retreat of the Americans from Ticonderoga. In June 1777, the British army, amounting to seven

thousand men, besides Indians and Canadians, commanded by general Burgoyne, crossed the lake and laid siege to Ticonderoga. In a short time the enemy gained possession of Sugar Hill, which commanded the American lines, and general St. Clair, with the advice of a council of war, ordered the posts to be abandoned. The retreat of the Americans was conducted under every possible disadvantage—part of their force embarked in battoes and landed at Skenesborough—a part marched by the way of Charlestown; but they were obliged to leave their heavy cannon, and on their march, lost great part of their baggage and stores, while their rear was harrassed by the British troops. An action took place between Colonel Warner, with a body of Americans, and general Frazer, in which the Americans were defeated, after a brave resistance, with the loss of a valuable officer, colonel Francis.

Of the Battle of Bennington. The Americans had collected a quantity of stores at Bennington; to destroy which as well as to animate the royalists and intimidate the patriots, general Burgoyne detached colonel Baum, with five hundred men and one hundred Indians. Colonel Breyman was sent to reinforce him, but did not arrive in time. On the 16th of August, general Stark, with about eight hundred brave militia men, attacked colonel Baum, in his entrenched camp about six miles from Bennington, and killed or took prisoners nearly the whole detachment. The next day colonel Breyman was attacked and defeated. In these actions the Americans took about seven hundred prisoners, and these successes served to revive the spirits of the people. This success however was in part counterbalanced by the advantages gained on the Mohawk by colonel St. Leger; but this officer, attacking fort Stanwix was repelled, and obliged to abandon the attempt.

Of the Defeat of General Burgoyne. General Burgoyne, after collecting his forces and stores, crossed the Hudson with a view to penetrate to Albany. But the American army being reinforced daily, held him

in check at Saratoga. General Gates now took the command, and was aided by the Generals Lincoln and Arnold. On the 19th of September, the Americans attacked the British army, and with such bravery, that the enemy could boast of no advantage, and night put an end to the action. The loss of the enemy was about five hundred. General Burgoyne was confined in a narrow pass—having the Hudson on one side and impassable woods on the other—a body of Americans was in his rear—his boats he had ordered to be burnt, and he could not retreat—while an army of thirteen thousand men opposed him in front. On the 7th of October, the armies came to a second action, in which the British lost general Frazer, with a great number of officers and men, and were driven within their lines. On the part of the Americans the loss was not great, but generals Lincoln and Arnold were wounded.

Of the Surrender of the British Army. It was the plan of the British generals, to push a body of troops from New-York, to join general Burgoyne at Albany, and by establishing a line of British posts on the Hudson, to intersect the intercourse between the New-England and southern states. While General Burgoyne was attempting to advance towards Albany, general Clinton with a force of three thousand men took possession of fort Montgomery, after severe loss. General Vaughan, with a body of troops, sailed up the Hudson, as far as Livingston's manor, where he landed a party, burnt a large house belonging to one of the family; then sent a party to the opposite shore, and laid in ashes the town of Kingston. But general Burgoyne despairing of the junction between his army and the division from New-York, surrounded by a superior army, and unable to retreat, consented to capitulate, and on the 17th of October surrendered to the American general. The detachment under general Vaughan, returned to New-York, and the plan of the British commanders was totally frustrated.

Of the Operations of the Main Armies. General *Washington's* force had been augmented, during the *winter and spring*, so as to render it difficult or impos-

sible for general Howe to pursue his plan of penetrating to Philadelphia. The British general therefore altered his plan, and embarked on board of his ships, entered the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk. On the 11th of September, an action was fought at Brandywine Creek, in which the American forces, after a brave resistance, were obliged to yield to superior numbers and discipline, with the loss of about twelve hundred men. The British loss was estimated at about half that number. General Washington retreated and encamped about eighteen miles from Philadelphia; while general Howe took possession of that city.

Of the Battle at Germantown. After having taken possession of Philadelphia it became necessary for general Howe to take the forts in the Delaware, to open the communication with the Atlantic. The Americans had constructed a fort on Mud Island, and a redoubt on the opposite Jersey shore; and had obstructed the channel of the river. In attempting to take these forts, count Donop, and three or four hundred men were killed, but the forts were finally taken. While this detachment was absent, general Washington attacked the British army, and at first obtained success. But a fog, in the morning, occasioned many mistakes, and after a severe battle, the Americans retreated, but without the loss of their cannon. Their loss was about one thousand in killed and wounded, among the slain was general Nash and his aid, major Witherspoon. The British lost upwards of five hundred men, with general Agnew and Colonel Bird. After these operations, the armies went into winter quarters.——The congress retired to Yorktown in Virginia.

Of the Proceedings in the British Parliament. When the news of the loss of general Burgoyne's army reached England, the ministry began to speak of America with more moderation, while the opposition party were violent in their censures of administration. *The war had then cost the nation about twenty thousand men,* and thirty millions of money. In this

state of affairs, the ministry had recourse to private subscriptions to raise additional troops. In February 1778, lord North laid before the house of commons two bills for conciliating the colonies, one to declare the intentions of parliament concerning the right of taxing the colonies, the other for enabling the king to appoint commissioners, with full powers, to treat with the American congress, general Washington, or the assemblies of the colonies, respecting an accommodation of differences. These bills, after debate, were carried, and commissioners appointed. One event which hastened these propositions, was the alliance between France and America, of which the ministry had obtained some intelligence.

Of the Treaties with France. In 1776, congress had sent Silas Deane an agent to France, to solicit the friendship of that rival of Great-Britain, and to procure arms and military stores. But the French court would give no open countenance to the agent, although it was evident that they secretly wished success to the Americans, because the dismemberment of the British empire, would greatly weaken a powerful rival. Mr. Deane however, obtained some ammunition, clothing, and a parcel of old muskets of little use. The French court would listen to no propositions of alliance, until they had news of the surrender of Burgoyne. That event decided the negociation, and on the 6th of February 1778, a treaty of alliance and a treaty of amity and commerce were signed at Paris, by the French ministry, and the American commissioners, doctor Franklin, Mr. Deane, and Mr. Lee.

Of the Transactions of the British commissioners. The news of the alliance with France was received in America with great joy. The prospect of a powerful ally infused new life into the Americans, and new vigor into their councils. In this state of the public mind, the British commissioners arrived in June, with terms of reconciliation, which, a few years earlier, *might have effected* the object. But the congress had *proceeded too far* to recede, and all conditions of reconciliation, *implying* a subjection to the British crown.

and short of an explicit acknowledgment of the independence of the United States were rejected. Among other means of recalling the Americans back to a dependence on Great-Britain, a large bribe was offered to an influential gentleman, but it was rejected with disdain. This negociation occasioned many publications of manifestoes, and appeals to the people, but without any sensible effect on the public mind.

Of the March of the Enemy through New-Jersey. At the opening of the campaign in 1778, general Howe went to England, and left the command to Sir Henry Clinton. In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched towards Staten Island. In their march they were annoyed by the Americans, and on the 28th of June a division of the army under general Lee was ordered, if possible, to bring them to an engagement. The order was not obeyed—general Washington arrived, and riding up to general Lee, addressed him in terms that implied censure. General Lee answered with warmth and disrespectful language. General Washington led the troops in person, and a smart action took place, in which both parties claimed the victory, but the advantage was clearly on the side of the Americans. The loss in killed and wounded amounted to three or four hundred, on each side; but the British left the field of battle in the night and pursued their retreat. This battle happened at Freehold, in Monmouth county, during a period of extreme heat, the mercury being above ninety degrees of Farenheit's scale. Many of the soldiers died on the spot by heat, fatigue, or drinking cold water. General Lee was tried by a court martial for disobedience, and his command suspended for one year.

Of the Arrival of a French Fleet. A fleet from Toulon, of twelve ships of the line, and four frigates, under the command of the count d'Estaing, arrived at the entrance of the Delaware in July, but it was too late to intercept lord Howe's fleet, which had arrived at Sandyhook. The count sailed and lay off the hook some days, but considering it as unsafe to attack the British ships in the harbor, he departed for Rhode-Island.

A plan was concerted to attack general Pigot w
British troops at Newport, by sea and land ; an
eral Sullivan was detached, with a considerable f
assist in the design. A landing in Rhode-Isla
effected by general Sullivan ; but lord Howe w
English fleet appearing off Newport, count d'E
left the siege and sailed to fight him. A viole
pest prevented an action, and disabled the fle
that the count was obliged to put into Boston
In consequence of this disaster, general Sulliva
ed the siege of Newport. A smart action took
on his retreat, in which two or three hundre
were slain.

Of various Expeditions in 1778. The Brit
my, after arriving at New-York from Philadelp
mained inactive during the summer, and the
cans encamped at White Plains. But in Sept
general Clinton dispatched general Grey, with
of troops to destroy the shipping at Bedford,
was a port much frequented by privateers. In
cursion, a large number of ships, with store
number of houses were burnt ; and the sheep an
on the neighboring islands carried away by the
Another party landed on the Jersey shore, su
colonel Baylor's regiment of cavalry, while
and with unequalled barbarity killed almost
man. A party of Indians and refugee royalists
by colonels Butler and Brandt, fell suddenly
small settlement at Wyoming, treacherously
the guard out of the fort, under pretence of a
then surrounded and destroyed the party. Gre
bers were killed after they had surrendered.

Of the taking of Savannah. In autumn gener
ton sent colonel Campbell, with a detachment,
an impression on Georgia. He arrived at Ty
in December, and prepared to assault the wor
Savannah, which were in a decayed condition, an
defended. General Prevost, who command
British garrison at Augustine, was directed to
rate in the expedition. The American force
general Howe, did not exceed eight hundred and

men. By way of a circuitous path, the British troops attacked the Americans in the rear, as well as front, and vanquished them with the loss of about one hundred men killed, and nearly five hundred prisoners. The British took possession of Savannah. At this time an insurrection of royalists in North Carolina was crushed by the spirited exertions of the militia. In this year a more regular discipline was introduced into the army, by baron Steuben, a German officer.

Of the predatory Excursions of the British army in 1779. Early in 1779, sir George Collier, and general Matthews, were detached to Virginia for the purpose of distressing the Americans. They landed at Portsmouth, and destroyed the shipping and valuable stores in that vicinity, with many houses. In June a party under general Vaughan took possession of an eminence on the west side of the Hudson, called Stoney Point, and obliged the small garrison at a redoubt, called Fayette, to surrender prisoners of war. In July, a party under general Tryon invaded Connecticut, under pretext of destroying the privateers which invested Long-Island, and also to draw, if possible, general Washington from his position at the highlands. In this expedition, the British forces landed at West-Haven, and by a circuitous march entered New-Haven, after some opposition, where they destroyed a number of stores, and committed other outrages. The next day, they embarked, and proceeded westward, landed and burnt the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk, then returned to New-York.

Of the taking of Stoney Point. The British troops having fortified Stoney Point, and garrisoned it with six hundred men, general Wayne was detached, with a body of troops, to take it. Having performed a difficult march, he commenced the attack in the depth of night, at two different points, with unloaded muskets, depending on the bayonet alone for success. General Wayne was wounded, but the troops under the brave colonel Meigs and other officers, advanced amidst a tremendous fire of grape shot and musketry, removed the obstacles, and entered the works. The

whole garrison surrendered, amounting to more than five hundred men—the loss on each side being less than a hundred men, killed and wounded. An attempt soon after to surprize the fortified post at Paulus Hook, miscarried. A still more important expedition, planned by Massachusetts, in the same season, against the British post at Penobscot, failed, with immense loss. A body of troops landed and laid siege to the fort, but a British naval force, under sir George Collier, appearing at the harbour, the attempt was frustrated. The American armed ships, being a frigate of thirty two guns, one of twenty, one of eighteen, several smaller ships, and twenty four transports, were burnt or sunk without offering any resistance to the enemy.

Of the Operations in South Carolina and Georgia. General Lincoln had been appointed to the command of the southern American army, and the British forces had been reinforced. In May, general Ash was defeated by the enemy, under general Prevost, at Briar Creek, with the loss of one hundred and fifty men killed, and about the same number taken. Emboldened by this success, general Prevost contemplated to take possession of Charleston; but the most strenuous efforts of the governor of the state, the militia, and the commander of the regular forces defeated the attempt, and the British troops retired to the Islands. In September, count d'Estaing arrived with his fleet from the West-Indies, and it was determined to attack general Prevost at Savannah. At first a regular siege was begun, but the count, impatient of delay, urged an assault. On the 9th of October, an attempt was made to storm the works; both Americans and Frenchmen behaved with great gallantry, but were repulsed with the loss of more than a thousand men, among whom was count Polaski, a Polish officer in the American service.

Of the Expedition of General Sullivan. To impress terror on the savages, and disable them in future from ravaging the frontiers, general Sullivan was sent in the summer of 1779, with a strong force, to destroy their

wns. He entered the country of the six nations, des-oyed forty villages with all the corn and their fruit ees, and returned with little loss. In this summer, the ritish troops evacuated Rhode-Island, and the French et, after the repulse at Savannah, returned to the Vest-Indies. The court of Spain acknowledged the ndependence of the United States and sent a force hich took possession of Florida, by the surrender f a British garrison. The British troops held Sa-annah, and the Americans, under General Lincoln, tired to Charleston. Thus ended the campaign of 779.

Of the Taking of Charleston. Sir Henry Clinton, nding it more easy to make an impression on the outhern States, which were less populous than the orthern, and being a level country, rendered the ansportation of artillery less difficult, determined to ake them the seat of war. Agreeable to this resolu-on, he sailed from New-York with a large force in he severe winter of 1779–80; and after a tempestuous assage, in which he lost some of his transports, arrived t Savannah the latter part of January. From Savan-ah, the army proceeded to Charleston, and in April ud siege to that city. The enemy made regular ap-roaches, and finally being prepared to storm the town, eneral Lincoln was compelled to capitulate. About wo thousand five hundred men, besides the militia and nhabitants, became prisoners, and all the cannon and nilitary stores. This happened on the 12th of May. 780. General Clinton left lord Cornwallis to com-and the troops in the southern army, and returned o New-York. Great numbers of the people in South arolina, being left defenceless, returned to their al-giance, and the British commander represented the tate as subdued.

Of the War in the Southern States. No sooner was harleston in the hands of the enemy, than disposi-ons were made to secure obedience in the interior ountry. For *this purpose*, a considerable force was *nt to Camden, where* the British commander, lord *rdon, collected his* stores, and took up his quarters,

Many severe skirmishes took place between small parties. Colonel Tarleton, an active partizan, commanding a body of British cavalry, defeated colonel Buford, and put most of his men to the sword. Colonel Sumpter, of Carolina, collected a small band of men, and bravely attacked small parties of the enemy, thus reviving the drooping spirits of his countrymen. General Gates was sent to replace general Lincoln, in the chief command, and troops were collected to oppose the progress of the British forces.

Of the Battle at Camden. Lord Cornwallis, hearing that general Gates was approaching Camden, repaired to that place to reinforce lord Rawdon. The two armies met on the 16th of August, and a severe action ensued. The American militia fled at the first fire, and could not be rallied; the regular American troops fought with great bravery, but were at last overcome and retreated, leaving their artillery, waggons, and two thousand stands of arms. The loss of the Americans was seven or eight hundred men, among whom was the baron de Kalbe, a Prussian, and the second officer in command. The British loss was three or four hundred men. The next day colonel Tarleton was detached to attack general Sumpter, who lay at Fishing Creek, with a considerable body of troops. Such was the celerity of Tarleton's movements, that he surprized general Sumpter, cut off his men from their arms, routed, killed and dispersed the whole party. General Gates, with the feeble remains of his army, retreated to Hillsborough in North Carolina.

Of the Condition of the Carolinas, and the excursion to Springfield. During the war in the southern states, the inhabitants were in a condition of extreme distress. The patriots were proscribed, and their estates sequestered by the British commander. The country was overrun and exhausted of provisions; and inveterate hostilities were carried on between neighbors and former friends, who had espoused different sides of the dispute. A large party of royalists, headed by major Ferguson and encamped on the confines

of North Carolina, were attacked and most of them slain or taken prisoners by a band of patriotic volunteers. Lord Cornwallis, by the sickness of his troops, and the severe loss of men at Camden, was obliged to remain inactive. General Sumpter collected a body of volunteers, and continued to harrass the enemy and intercept their convoys. During these operations in Carolina, a body of five thousand troops, under a Hessian General, passed into New-Jersey, burnt a number of houses at Connecticut Farms, and the presbyterian church. In this excursion, the wife of Mr. Caldwell, a respectable clergyman, was shot as she sat with a child in her arms, in her own house. The enemy advanced to Springfield, a considerable part of which they burnt, but met with such severe resistance from a small force under General Green, that they returned to New-York.

Of the finances of the United States There being no constitutional government, when the war began, and no power to tax the confederated colonies, the congress adopted the expedient of defraying the expences of the war, by means of bills of credit. One emission after another was ushered into circulation, and none of it recalled by taxes, till such a quantity was emitted that its value depreciated to one fortieth part, and ultimately to one hundredth part of its nominal value—that is, it required one hundred dollars in paper, to purchase one dollar in specie. With this paper was the army paid. The soldiers had long been discontented, thus to lose their wages, while serving their country; and in 1780, their murmurs ripened into open mutiny. But the punishment of the ringleaders and the expostulations of the officers, prevailed to bring them back to their duty.

Of the Arrival of a French squadron. In July, 1780, arrived at Newport, a French fleet under monsieur de-Ternay, consisting of seven ships of the line, with frigates, and six thousand land forces commanded by general Rochambeau. The troops were landed and the fortifications made strong. This gave new life to the American councils and arms; the army was

reinforced, and dispositions made to strike an effectual blow But suddenly the French fleet left the harbor and returned to France, without giving the least notice to general Washington; so that all hope of naval assistance vanished. The land forces remained and co-operated in the final reduction of the British forces in America; but general Washington was extremely angry and disappointed at the conduct of the French commander.

Of Arnold's Treachery. During these affairs, a plot of immense danger was happily discovered. General Arnold, after his wounds had in a manner disabled him, was appointed to a command in Philadelphia; where his oppressive and overbearing measures had provoked a severe inquiry into his conduct. A committee, appointed by congress to examine his accounts, had rejected many of them as unjust; and his severe invectives, on the occasion, and the charges against him, had subjected him to a trial by court martial, by which he was sentenced to be reprimanded. By these proceedings, Arnold was greatly exasperated, and he determined on revenge. General Washington still valued him for his bravery and his former military services, and intrusted him with the chief command at the important post at Westpoint. He took that opportunity to carry on a negociation with the British commander in New-York, for the surrender of the post into the hands of the enemy.

Of the Detection of the Plot. For the purpose of concerting all the requisite measures, major Andre, adjutant general of the British army, proceeded to West point in disguise, where he took plans of the fortresses, and agreed upon the time and manner of attack. He then received a passport from Arnold, and set out on his return to New-York, under the name of Anderson. He had passed all the out posts of the American army, when riding along the road in Tarrytown, he was stopped by three militiamen, who were on a scouting party. Major Andre, alarmed for his safety, offered his watch and a purse of gold, for permission to *proceed,* but the men refused the bribe, and seized

. The papers found in his boot evinced his guilt, l he was condemned and executed. Every effort was de by the British commander in New-York to obtain release; but in vain. His life was forfeited by the ws of war. His fortitude and amiable deportment vever endeared him to the officers of the American ny, who regretted the necessity of his fate

Of General Arnold's Escape. The news of the seiz- of Andre, soon reached the ears of general Arnold, o leaving his family and effects, immediately fled d went on board the Vulture, a sloop of war, which British commander had stationed near the Ameri- lines, for the purpose of carrying on the negocia- n. General Washington arrived in camp from Con- ticut, just after Arnold had made his escape; and nd the affairs of the garrison in disorder. He re- ved a letter from Arnold requesting that his wife ght be treated with respect, and suffered to join him, return to Philadelphia, and also that his baggage ght be sent to him—which requests were granted. rnold received the reward of his treason, and the mmission of brigadier-general in the British army. e then issued a paper explaining the motives of s conduct, and had the impudence to publish an ad- ess to the American army, inviting officers and ldiers to betray their country; but without the least ccess.

Of the Operations in Carolina in the Winter of 1780 81. In the autumn of 1780, general Green, an excel- nt officer, was appointed to the command of the Ame- an forces in Carolina. He was accompanied by co- nel Morgan, an active officer, who commanded a dy of riflemen The first action, after this appoint- ent, was fought at the Cowpens, where colonel Mor- n was attacked by colonel Tarleton, who had the lvantage of numbers. Colonel Morgan placed a body militia in front of a wood, while his best troops ere drawn up in the rear and out of sight. The st line gave way, and as Tarleton pursued them, the her line opened to let his men advance, until they ere placed between two fires, when a deadly discharge

from Morgan's troops threw the enemy into irrecoverable disorder. The enemy lost three hundred men killed and five hundred prisoners. The loss of the Americans was twelve men killed and sixty wounded.

Of the Battle near Guilford Court-House After the disaster at the Cowpens, lord Cornwallis determined to intercept colonel Morgan, and retake the prisoners, but a heavy rain during the night, swelled the rivers so as to prevent his design To enable his troops to march with more celerity, he destroyed all his heavy baggage. At length general Green joined colonel Morgan, with additional forces, and lord Cornwallis, having collected his troops, the armies met near the court-house in Guilford The action was fought on the 15th of March 1781. The Americans amounted to between 4 and 5 thousand men, but mostly militia, or inexperienced soldiers. The British force consisted of about half the number of veterans. The battle was fought with great bravery and effect; for although lord Cornwallis remained master of the field, his losses, in a country where he could not recruit his army, had the effect of a defeat. His loss was more than five hundred men. That of the Americans could not be less.

Of the subsequent Operations. Lord Cornwallis not being able to pursue his advantages, general Green marched to Camden, where lord Rawdon was fortified, with nine hundred men. The British commander sallied out and attacked him: victory for some time hung in suspense; but the retreat of two companies, gave the British the advantage. The loss on each side was between two and three hundred men. General Green did not remain inactive—a number of posts in different parts of the country, fell successively into his power, with supplies of military stores. General Green laid siege to Ninety Six, a strong post, but lord Rawdon, with a reinforcement, advancing to its relief, general Green attempted to take it by storm. But the attempt failed, with the loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Of the Battle at the Eutaw Springs. Many skirmishes and movements took place in the summer of 1781;

but on the 19th of September, general Green, with about two thousand men, attacked colonel Stewart, at the Eutaw Springs. After a severe fire between advanced parties, the action became general, and the militia gave way—General Green then ordered the regular troops of the Maryland and Virginia lines, to advance with trailed arms and make free use of the bayonet. A shower of musketry and a severe cannonade made no considerable impression on this body—they attacked the enemy and won the victory. Five hundred men were taken prisoners, and the whole loss of the British was estimated at eleven hundred. Colonel Washington, bravely advancing to dislodge a party of the enemy from a piqueted garden and house, was wounded and taken prisoner. Colonel Stewart, the next day, abandoned the place and retreated towards Charleston.

Of Arnold's exploits in Virginia. Early in 1781, general Arnold was dispatched with about seventeen hundred men, to make a diversion in Virginia, by calling the attention of the Virginians from lord Cornwallis. General Phillips, with two thousand troops, was sent from New-York to reinforce him. General Washington detached the marquis de la Fayette, with two thousand men to oppose the enemy in Virginia; and a small naval force under de Ternay, sailed from Newport to block up the Chesapeak and take the British troops. An inconsiderable action took place between this fleet and a division of the British ships under admirals Arbuthnot and Graves. But the French ships returned, and left the British squadron to succor the army in Virginia. The British troops were employed for a long time without much interruption, in destroying the warehouses, tobacco, mills and other property on James' river and the Appomattox, and immense was the destruction of property.

Of the Junction of the British Forces in Virginia. After the severe action at Guilford, lord Cornwallis retreated to Wilmington in North Carolina. His troops suffered every possible distress from the want of provisions and clothing, and the extreme heat of the

climate. He therefore determined to force a march through a most inhospitable desart, and join the troops under general Phillips in Virginia. He arrived in May, and took the command of the united forces. General Phillips died of a fever, before his arrival. After some predatory warfare, lord Cornwallis encamped at Yorktown, and Gloucester Point on York river, which afforded deep water for shipping, and there he fortified his camp; the main body of the army being on the south side of the river at Yorktown, and his whole force being about seven thousand men.

Of the Events which led to the Attack on Lord Cornwallis. In the year 1780, a plan of combined operations against the British forces in America, was preconcerted by general Washington, at Wethersfield, in conjunction with general Rochambeau, general Knox and other generals. General Washington was induced to this, by the absolute necessity of obtaining some splendid advantage, to revive the expiring hopes and languid exertions of the American states. The point of attack was not absolutely determined; for it was not possible to foresee where the enemy would be most susceptible of impression. But the general determined to be prepared, either for an attack on New-York, if the prospect of success should be clear; or upon any other impressible point. For this purpose great exertions were made, in collecting artillery, boats, stores, and provisions. At the same time, the general gave out and caused it to be understood by all ranks of officers, civil and military, that New-York was to be the place of attack, with a view to induce the eastern and middle states to exert themselves in furnishing supplies. After lord Cornwallis had collected a large body of forces in Virginia, and the general determined that it would be best to attack *his* army, he wrote letters to general Green and others, stating his intention to attack New-York, and contrived to have these letters intercepted by the British commander, in New-York, who was completely deceived, and prevented from sending succors to lord Cornwallis.

the Siege of Yorktown. After making a show of king New-York, general Washington suddenly his camp, crossed the Hudson with his army, and ng through New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, speedi- ived at the head of Elk, where a part of his forces rked and sailed to Virginia; the rest marched id. At this moment, general Washington heard arrival of the French fleet under the count de e, in the Chesapeak. Admiral Graves made an pt to relieve lord Cornwallis; and his fleet had a engagement with the French fleet near the s of the Chesapeake; but without the intended . A body of French troops was landed to co-ope- vith the Americans. The whole combined force general Washington, amounted to twelve or en thousand men, besides militia, closely invested ritish army in Yorktown.

the Burning of New-London. No sooner had Sir Clinton discovered that General Washington had off his forces towards Virginia, than he sent al Arnold on another expedition for plunder and ction. On the 6th of September 1781, the Brit- rces landed near New-London in Connecticut, in ivisions; one took fort Trumbull, without diffi- the other met with a brave resistance from col- Ledyard and about seventy men suddenly collec- om the town of Groton. The assailants lost their anders; colonel Eyre was wounded and major ison killed; but they took the fort by assault, and htered the garrison after they had surrendered. el Ledyard was slain with his own sword The then proceeded to burn the town of New-Lon- sixty dwelling houses, eighty four stores, and a amount of property were devoted to the flames. t of the shipping was sent up the river and saved rest was destroyed

the Surrender of Lord Cornwallis and his Army. British army being blockaded by sea, the Ameri- rmy opened the first batteries upon them, early in er, with such effect as to silence part of their ry. Two British redoubts, which annoyed the

operations, were assaulted and taken, one by colonel Hamilton, at the head of a party of American troops, who attacked with unloaded arms and carried the works with little loss—the other by a detachment of French troops, who suffered considerable loss. The second parallel was begun on the night of the 11th; and such was the tremendous effect of the American artillery, that the British works were demolished, their guns silenced, and no hope of relief or escape remained. On the 17th of the month, lord Cornwallis proposed a cessation of hostilities, and on the 19th, articles of capitulation were signed, by which the British army, military stores, and shipping fell into the hands of general Washington.

Of the Effects of the Capture of Lord Cornwallis on the Americans. As the reduction of this division of the British forces in America, was considered as deciding the war and establishing the independence of the United States, the news was every where received with emotions of inexpressible joy. Divine service was performed in all the American brigades, and the commander in chief, recommended that all who were not on duty, should join in the worship, with a serious deportment, and that sensibility of heart, due to the recollection of the surprizing and particular interposition of Providence. Congress resolved to go in procession to church, and make public acknowledgments of gratitude to Heaven for the singular event. A public thanksgiving was recommended, and the day was observed throughout the United States. General Washington and the French commanders received the thanks of Congress; and the American commander in chief liberated all persons under arrest, that all might partake in the general joy.

Of the Consequences of the Surrender of Cornwallis. The reduction of so large a part of the British forces in the United States, convinced the British nation of the utter impracticability of conquering the country. The combined forces of France and Spain had taken Minorca from Great Britain: some of the islands in the West Indies, and some of their possessions in the

south American coast, had shared the same fate. Admiral Rodney, in 1782, obtained a most important naval victory over the French fleet under the count de Grasse, which in some degree, balanced the losses of Great Britain; but the vast expense of money and lives in the contest, induced the British nation to wish for peace. A change of ministry took place, which was favorable to the United States, and measures were taken in 1782, to open a negociation. General Carleton was appointed to the command in America, and arrived at New-York in May, with instructions to propose an accommodation. At length the ministers of the several powers at war signed provincial articles of peace on the 30th of November 1782, by which the independence and sovereignty of the United States were acknowledged. On the 3d day of September 1783, was signed a definitive treaty, which secured to the United States the objects for which they had contended, and gave them a rank among nations.

Of the Disbanding of the Army. When the American army was to be disbanded, new and serious difficulties arose concerning the payment of the arrears of their wages and rations. The want of resources to carry on the war, and the want of a supreme power to lay and collect taxes, had driven congress to the expedient of emitting vast sums in bills of credit, which depreciated almost to no value; and the interruption of commerce with a deluge of paper currency, banished for a time, all gold and silver from circulation. In this state of the public treasury, the army was ill paid and clothed, and great discontents occasioned the resignation of officers, and rendered it impracticable to recruit the army.

Of the Provision made for the Army in 1778. In January 1778, general Washington addressed congress in favor of the army; representing that although the effusion of zeal, at the beginning of the contest, had induced officers and men to enter into the service without much *regard to* pecuniary considerations, yet finding it *to continue* longer than they had at first expected, *and that* they were to expose their lives, health

and estates to destruction, by their patriotism, without a prospect of a competent future subsistence, their ardor had abated, and a disinclination to the service prevailed—that resignation of commissions were frequent, and that reliance could not be placed on men disaffected to the service. He therefore urged congress to make provision, to secure them and their families from future want and distress. Convinced of the propriety of this measure, congress on the 15th of May, 1778, resolved to grant half pay for seven years after the war, to the commissioned officers; and to non-commissioned officers and privates, eighty dollars, at the end of the war, in addition to their pay and rations.

Of the Effects of this Grant, and the Extension of it. The half pay resolve quieted the apprehensions of the army, in a good degree, and the service was for a time, performed with zeal and alacrity. But the continual depreciation of the currency in which the troops received their wages, deprived them of a great part of their real dues, and neither officers nor soldiers could maintain a decent appearance, in point of dress, while the families of many were suffering at home. These circumstances, with the derangement of a great number of officers, in 1780, occasioned by the necessity of reducing the number of regiments, for want of their complement of men, gave rise to great discontents in the army, and called for a further interposition of congress. Upon the representation of these facts, by the commander in chief, congress on the 21st of October, 1780, resolved, that the officers should be entitled to half pay for life.

Of the State of the Army in 1783. Reposing confidence in the faith of the United States, the officers of the army remained quiet, until the close of the war. A mutiny among the soldiers, in two or three instances, occasioned some alarm, but produced no serious consequences. After the army returned from Yorktown, and encamped at Newburg, on the Hudson, a cessation of hostilities gave them leisure to contemplate their *sufferings, their losses* by paper currency, and their

future prospects. At that time, a report was circulated that congress did not intend to fulfil their engagements respecting half pay. They therefore deputed a committee of officers to wait on congress, with an address and petition, representing their hardships, and embarrassments—that in 1777, they had been paid in dollars when worth four pence only—and that their subsequent arrearages had not been liquidated. They therefore requested an adjustment, and payment or security for the balances due. And as the half pay resolves had given uneasiness, by establishing a precedent of *pensions*, they requested a sum in gross in lieu of half pay for life.

Of the Proceedings of Congress on this Memorial. In compliance with the wishes of the army, congress on the 25th of January, resolved that the superintendent of finance should pay such part of the arrears due to the army, as the finances would permit—that the states should be called on to complete a settlement with their respective troops to the first of August 1780—that the troops had an undoubted right, with all public creditors, to expect security for the payment of arrears, and that congress would make every effort in their power, to obtain from the states, substantial funds for the whole debt. The proposition for commuting half pay during life, for a specific sum, was referred to a committee to examine the value of annuities, and on their report a resolution was proposed granting five years full pay in lieu of half pay for life, but it did not pass. On the 8th of February the committee made a report of these proceedings to the army.

Of the Reception of this Report by the Army. As congress had little money and no means of raising it, except the old expedient of issuing bills, the army had little hope of any immediate relief adequate to their wants; and conscious of their fidelity and meritorious services, they could not patiently brook the delays attending the settlement of their accounts. On the 10th of March a notification was circulated, without a name, requesting a meeting of the general and field officers, with one from each company, to consider the

communications from congress, and what measures it would be proper to take. With this notice was circulated an anonymous address, couched in a style of great energy, and calculated to awaken in the army the keenest sensations of indignity for the wrongs done to the officers and soldiers. The impression on the army was correspondent to the spirit of the address, and threatened a violent commotion.

Of the Conduct of General Washington in that crisis. The commander in chief with that coolness which never forsook him, and with a moderation adapted to allay the irritations of the moment, issued the next day, a notice reproving with mildness, the proposal for an irregular, unauthorised meeting, and requesting the officers to meet on a different day. On which a second address from the same unknown pen appeared, in which the author indirectly intimated that the design of his first address was not to excite to violence, but to rouse the army to assume a more bold and manly tone, in their solicitations for justice. The addresses were communicated to congress, and no doubt produced in a degree, the effect intended; for on the 22d of March, a resolution passed for a grant of five years pay, in lieu of half pay for life. At the meeting of the officers in pursuance of the general's request, the commander in chief addressed them in a masterly manner, reprobating the anonymous address, recommending peaceable measures, and pledging himself to exert his utmost ability to procure full justice to be done to the army. The officers voted him an address of thanks, and resolved that they continued to have unshaken confidence in the justice of congress and their country. Thus was dissipated one of the most menacing storms that ever hung over America.

Of the Dismission of the Army. At the moment this storm had subsided, news was received that the preliminaries of peace were signed, and on the 26th of *May 1783*, congress resolved that the commander *in chief be* instructed to grant furlows to the non-commissioned officers and soldiers, who were engaged

vice during the war, who should be discharged as
s the definitive treaty should be concluded, with
proportion of commissioned officers. Upon the
ation of that resolve, the officers presented a
d address to the commander in chief, expressing
sufferings and wants, and their severe disap-
nent, as well as astonishment, at being disbanded
ut a settlement of their accounts, and a pro-
for payment of the balances. They intreated
o use his influence with congress to obtain a sus-
on of their order, and that no officer or soldier
d be obliged to receive a furlow, until congress
be made acquainted with the wretched condition
which they should be plunged, if compelled to re-
rom the army, without a settlement of their ac-
s, a payment of the balances, or any evidence of
was due to them. The request could not be
ed, but the general in his reply, stated that a par-
ayment was soon to be made, and that every thing
icable should be done, to bring their accounts to a
adjustment.

the Mutiny in Pennsylvania. As it was not possi-
or congress to make full payment to the army, nor
uidate their accounts in a short time, and as it
mportant to reduce the current expenditures, the
rs and soldiers inlisted for the war, were dismissed
three months pay, in notes given by the financier,
ole in six months This measure excited great
ntents, and in Pennsylvania occasioned a mutiny.
me 1783, about eighty soldiers belonging to a
then stationed at Lancaster, deserted their officers,
nder the conduct of their sergeants, marched to
delphia, where they were joined by two or three
red soldiers from the barracks in that city. On
1st of the month they proceeded in a body and
unding the state-house, where congress and the
itive council of Pennsylvania were sitting, placed
ls at the doors—sent a message to the council
laining of the non-settlements of their accounts,
he want of pay, and behaved in a menacing and
erly manner.

Of the Proceedings of Congress on this occasion. Congress, not choosing to deliberate when surrounded by armed men, adjourned and retired After the mutineers had withdrawn, congress appointed a committee to wait on the executive council of Pennsylvania, requesting their efficacious aid in securing the safety of their persons, and preventing such indignities to the authority of the United States. The committee reported, that they had not received satisfactory assurances of the prompt and adequate exertions of that state, for supporting the dignity of the federal government. Congress therefore adjourned their sittings to Trenton, where they continued for some time; and to put a stop to such outrages, general Washington was requested to send a body of troops to Philadelphia. Accordingly a detachment of fifteen hundred men was sent from head-quarters—which with other measures, quelled the mutiny. The accounts of the army had been put in a train for settlement, persons were appointed to adjust and ascertain the demands on the United States, whether for services or supplies; and certificates, which acquired the name of *final settlements*, were given as evidences of the balances due from the public. In these was included five years pay to the officers, in lieu of half pay for life, and eighty dollars allowance to the soldiers beyond their wages

Of the Popular Discontents on account of the Grant to the officers Scarcely was the army dismissed, when attempts were made in some parts of the country, to excite uneasiness among the people, on account of the five years extra pay to the officers, called commutation. The uneasiness was first manifested and most violent in the New-England states, and especially in Connecticut, where the symptoms of it became public in July 1783. Town meetings were held and resolutions passed, expressive of the people's disapprobation of the act of congress. It was said that the half pay, and the five years pay in lieu of it, were in the nature of pensions, which are always odious among a free people—that the officers of the army had taken advantage of the necessities of the country, to extort the promise of this gratui-

from Congress—that the army had not suffered more
an the people—that many of the officers had raised
ge estates—and all of them been amply rewarded by
tra grants and bounties.

Of the Progress of these discontents. The publica-
n of the town meeting resolves served to augment
d spread with rapidity the popular discontents; and
autumn the crisis became alarming. A proposal
a convention of deputies from the several towns in
nnecticut, to be held at Middletown, was circulated
th great success, and on the 8d day of September
legates from twenty-eight towns, assembled at that
ace. For want of a full representation of the state,
hich was ascribed to the short notice given, they ad-
urned to the thirtieth of the same month. On that
y the convention met and about fifty towns were rep-
sented. This illegal body, having agreed on an ad-
ess to the legislature, adjourned to the 10th of De-
mber; when few members attending, they adjourned
the third Tuesday in March 1784. On that day a
w delegates attended and originated an inflamatory
ldress to the people, complaining of the officers of the
my, and pronouncing the grant of five years extra
y, an unconstitutional act.

Of the Result of the Popular Proceedings. During
e democratic effervency in Connecticut, congress
ere accused as usurpers and tyrants; the proposal of
general impost to supply the public treasury was
probated as dangerous to the sovereignty of the sev-
al states: the society of the Cincinnati was repre-
nted as an aristocracy, aiming to establish orders of
bility; and a thousand bugbears were held up to
iew, to terrify weak and discontented minds. An at-
mpt was made to circulate a ticket containing the
mes of new men for the upper-house, and the old,
rm, respectable men who had stood at the helm, dur-
g the tempest of the revolution, were held up to view
objects of suspicion. But the more steady and dis-
rning part of the people gave no heed to these de-
ocratic jealousies; they represented, in the papers,
he true state of facts—that the army had suffered by

the depreciation of paper bills—that they had endured hunger and cold, for want of their just dues—and that the grant of congress was essential to the very existence of an army. Such representations had the desired effect, and before the session of the legislature in May 1784, the towns had become sensible of their error, and dismissed their delegates

Of the Discontents in Massachusetts. In the beginning of 1784, an attempt was made by some towns in Massachusetts, to collect the sense of the people in an irregular manner, as had been done in Connecticut. In February, a committee of the towns of Wrentham and Medway, with the advice of some other towns, wrote a circular letter, proposing a meeting of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county, to take into consideration the commutation act, and the proposed general impost. On that occasion, the town of Boston held a meeting and agreed to a letter which was sent to the committee in answer to their circular letter; expressing the entire disapprobation of the proposed county meeting, as irregular and unconstitutional. They reprobated the baleful influence of such disorderly proceedings, and manifested an acquiescence in the measures of congress. The spirit of opposition however infected the people and the legislature of that state for some time, until the good sense of wise and moderate men prevailed over the intemperate zeal of the popular leaders.

Of General Washington's Circular Letter. In June 1783, the commander of the American army wrote a circular letter to the governors of the several states, congratulating them on the glorious termination of the war, and offering to them his sentiments on some important subjects. In this letter, he represents that the republic of the United States was founded in an enlightened period of the world, when the rights of men were well understood; when science, commerce, refinement of manners, liberality of sentiment, and above all the pure and benign light of revelation had meliorated the state of mankind, and increased the blessings of society—for these reasons, if the citizens

of the United States should fail to be free and happy, the fault would be entirely their own—that the cup of blessings was offered to them, but it depended on themselves whether to be respectable and prosperous, or contemptible and miserable—and whether the revolution should be a blessing or a curse. In this address, he recommended an indissoluble union of the states under one federal head—a sacred regard to public justice—the adoption of a peace establishment, and the cultivation of pacific and friendly dispositions among the people. He declared also his intention of retiring to private life, which he had left with regret, and for which he had never ceased to sigh.

Of General Washington's Farewell Address to the Army. The congress, in consequence of the definitive treaty of peace, disbanded the army by proclamation, dated October 18, 1783. On this occasion, the commander in chief, on the second of November, addressed to the army, his farewell orders, in which he recapitulated the principal events of the war, the disadvantages under which it was conducted, and the perseverance of the troops, under the severest sufferings from hunger, nakedness, toils, dangers and inclement seasons. He gave them the strongest assurances that their services would be rewarded, and recommended to them to carry into civil life the most conciliating dispositions, and the virtues of good citizens. He expressed his thankfulness to the officers and soldiers for their zeal, bravery, fortitude and patience, and dropping the curtain of separation, he recommended them, in a most affectionate manner, to the notice of a grateful country, and the protection of heaven.

Of General Washington's Resignation. On the twenty-third day of December 1783, the commander in chief of the American army waited on congress, then sitting at Annapolis, to resign his commission. On that affecting occasion, the general addressed the president, congratulating congress on the auspicious issue of the war, and the confirmation of the sovereignty and independence of the United States. He expressed his grateful sense of the assistance and support

he had received from the country, his obligation
the army, and to the gentlemen who composed his f
ily, whom he recommended to the notice of congr
He then commended the dearest interests of his co
try to the holy keeping of the Supreme Dispose
events, took an affectionate farewell of the an
council of America, under whose orders he had ac
delivered his commission to the president, and t
leave of all public employments. The president r
and with a heart almost too full for utterance, reci
rated the general's congratulations, and with the n
ardent expressions of gratitude for his services,
affection for his person, commended his precious lif
the fostering care of heaven. The tears of speeta
evidenced their sensations at the sublime spectacl
the great Washington, resigning his command,
retiring, loaded with honors, to the peaceful shade
Mount Vernon.

Of the Cincinnati. During the negociations
peace, the officers of the army formed themselves
a society, to which they gave the name of *Cincinn*
after the celebrated Roman, who was summoned f
his plow, to take command of the armies of the re
lic, and after defeating his enemies and liberating
state from danger, returned to the cultivation of
farm. The objects of this association were decla
to be, to perpetuate the memory of the revolution
the friendship of the officers—to preserve invio
the exalted rights and liberties of human nature
promote and cherish union and national honor betw
the states—and to form a fund for the relief of offi
or their families who should come to want. For
purpose, every officer deposited a month's pay, i
common stock, which was put to interest. The ho
was made hereditary in the male issue of the offic
and in default of such issue, might be assigned to
lateral heirs. Distinguished men, not belonging
the army, might be elected honorary members.
badge of the order was a gold medal suspended b
blue ribbon.

Of the Popular Jealousy against this Society. The association of the Cincinnati was published at a time when the people of the United States were oppressed with taxes, and irritated at the grant of extra pay to the army. The universal jealousy of equal rights, which the leaders of the revolution had found it necessary to foster and cultivate, was alarmed at every thing that bore the semblance of distinction. At this time a writer of considerable eminence in Carolina, published a pamphlet, in which he labored to prove that the society was intended by some of its artful framers, to lay the foundation of an order of nobility; that it contained in it the elements of such an order and would certainly result in the establishment of it. Whatever truth there might have been in these charges, the publication had a considerable effect, in augmenting the flames of popular discontent.

Of the Alteration of their Constitution. At a meeting of delegates from the several state societies, [which were composed of the officers of each state,] held at Philadelphia in May 1784, general Washington attended and was appointed president. To obviate objections against this society, and allay the popular uneasiness, it was judged expedient to amend the constitution of the society, and expunge the most objectionable articles, and especially that which rendered the honor hereditary. On this occasion, the society published an address to the state societies, in which they declared and appealed to heaven for the sincerity of their declaration, that their intentions were pure; that as their views had been misrepresented, they would give another proof that the officers were among the most faithful citizens, and therefore they had agreed to a constitution to which there could be no reasonable objection. By this constitution, the officers are formed into a general society, and the officers of each state into a state society, whose annual meetings for the choice of officers are on the anniversary of independence. By this institution, the friendship contracted in the army, is preserved, and the interest of the funds benevolently applied to the relief of indigent members or their families.

Of the Weakness of the Confederation. In 177 plan of confederation and perpetual union was fo by congress and proposed to the several states fo ceptance Most of the states acceded to it wit great delay; but on account of some advantages, w that plan was calculated to afford to the states po sing unappropriated lands, the state of Mary which possessed no such land, at first declined ac ing it; and did not ratify it until March 1781. I mean time, the states were compelled by external ger, to act in concert; and the recommendatio congress were observed by the states, and usually ried into effect by laws enacted by the several le tures. But no sooner were the states released fro pressure of dangers, than the weakness of the fe compact began to appear. The states were no l anxious to preserve the authority of congress, resolutions were disregarded, or at least not enf Congress had no power to lay taxes to suppl treasury of the United States; the sums voted fo lic service were apportioned upon each state, to b ed in the manner the Legislature should prescribe the states soon became delinquent—the treasur not supplied, and no provision was made for payi interest of the public debt.

Of the Expedients to raise Money. Congres ing the requisitions of money from the states, alt er ineffectual, recommended to the several legis to grant to congress a power to lay and collect post on imported commodities, amounting to fi cent. Most of the states readily complied, and an act granting the power required. But Rhode- an importing state, apprehensive that such a grant lessen the advantages of her trade, declined pas act for the purpose, and by that means, defeated ly practicable plan of replenishing the federal tr New-York afterwards joined in opposition to the ure, and rendered all prospect of a revenue ho In this situation, the authority of congress was r *to a name,* and the confederation to a rope o *The interest* of the public debt could not be p

congress issued certificates of interest, called *indents*: but the certificates of both for principal and interest, during the extinction of public credit, depreciated to one eighth of their real value. Two hundred millions of dollars, in bills of credit, had been issued by congress, but these had sunk to no value and ceased to circulate.

Of the Paper Currencies. As the expences of the war, and the destruction of commerce had rendered people poor, involved them in debt, and reduced them to great distress, the legislatures of some of the states resorted to the old expedient of bills of credit. Large sums were issued—in some states the bills were loaned to the inhabitants on mortgages of real estate—in others they were circulated under the compulsion of tender laws—in most of them, the bills depreciated and occasioned numerous frauds. Other states, avoiding the evils of a paper currency, suspended the collection of debts for a limited time, or made various commodities a legal tender in discharge of debts. In some states the bills sunk not more than ten per cent —in others, to almost nothing; and being limited in circulation, to the bounds of states, were extremely inconvenient as a medium of business.

Of the Public Creditors. No fund having been provided by congress for the payment of the principal or interest of the federal debt, the certificates lost their value, and the creditors of the United States were left in a hopeless condition. Such of them as were possessed of other property, were not reduced to wretchedness; but many of the officers and soldiers, or their widows and orphan children, were deprived of the means of subsistence. In this distressed condition, many were compelled to sell their certificates at any price that was offered; and as it was doubtful whether congress would ever have the ability to redeem them, few persons would risk to purchase them. In this state of public credit, particular men made it their business to buy and sell the certificates, and thus acquired the name of speculators. This irregular business continued, until the debt was funded—but in the me

time, most of the army notes had been sold at about a 6th or an 8th of their nominal value. Thus the brave men, who had endured hardships, cold and hunger, who had fought the battles of the country, and repeatedly received solemn assurances of ample recompense for their toils; were forced to sell their securities for a mere trifle, to save their families from starving.

Of the trade of the United States. During the three last years of the war, when continental bills had ceased to circulate, large quantities of gold and silver had been introduced into the country, by the French army, and an illicit trade to Spanish America. No sooner was peace proclaimed, than a vast importation of British goods was begun; and was greatly encouraged by the real wants of America, and the superabundance of goods in Great-Britain. This trade was at first lucrative to both parties, but in a short time occasioned a scarcity of specie, which had been remitted in ship loads to Great-Britain for goods. This evil was rendered the more durable, by the restrictions laid on the trade of the United States to the West-Indies; for Great Britain, enforcing her navigation laws, shut her ports against American ships, or laid enormous duties on our most valuable exports.

Of the Effects of these Measures. The restrictions on our trade, and the indiscreet importations of British goods on credit, in the course of two or three years, totally exhausted the country of money, and the merchants could not possibly make remittances to meet their engagements. Hence proceeded numberless bankruptcies among the American merchants, which caused great failures also in England; multitudes were ruined in both countries, and then followed great distresses, an annihilation of private credit and mercantile confidence. To remedy these evils, the state legislatures adopted the most pernicious measures. Some of them expected relief in emissions of bills of credit—*some of them* attempted to retaliate, and imposed restraints on the British trade to this country, to induce *the ministry* to relax the rigor of her navigation laws, *and enter into a* commercial treaty with the United

tes. But at the same time, the neighboring states ned their ports to all the world, and counteracted operation of such restraints. In this miserable, ointed condition, the state sovereignties thwarted h other's schemes, the dignity of the nation was in the narrow views of petty state rivalries, our onal character was degraded, the United States ame a jest and a bye word among nations, and were atened with civil commotions, of the most formida- nature.

f the Insurrection in Massachusetts. During the nction of the authority of congress, Massachusetts le an effort to maintain her credit, and laid a very y tax to satisfy her creditors. As the country not recovered from the distresses of the war; as le and manufactures had declined, and the hab- of the people had become luxurious and licentious, means of a liberal credit of goods, and a disorgan- l state of the government, the measures of the le- ature were found to favor more of a zeal for g justice, than of expediency. The people op- ed the tax—in some parts of the state, county tings were held, and abusing the privilege of pe- ning for a redress of grievances, they proceeded combine their scattered forces; the people ob- cted the sitting of courts, and finally took arms pposition to the laws of the state. Some skir- hing ensued, and several persons were killed: le in some counties, the friends of the govern- t were robbed and plundered. The prudent and iliating measures of governor Bowdoin and his ncil, seconded by an armed force under general coln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the it of opposition, and restored the authority of the s.

f the first Attempts to establish a more Effectual ernment. Discerning men, before the conclusion he war, were convinced that the confederation was ctive and utterly insufficient to accomplish the ends *national union.* In February 1783, a merchant *hiladelphia* published a pamphlet on the subject;

in which he clearly proved the necessity of a new constitution which should divide congress into two houses, and give them more ample powers. The events of a few years demonstrated the opinions of that discerning writer; but at that time, the people full of state pride, and placing their confidence in the state governments, treated the author's plan as original propositions are usually treated, with hatred, jealousy or contempt. In the June following, however, general Washington, in his letter to the several governors, urged the necessity of enlarging the powers of congress. These recommendations were disregarded, until the public calamities became urgent, and a resort to arms became the theme of conversation, and the subject of secret deliberations. In the spring of 1785, an application was indirectly made to general Washington to induce him to use his influence in favor of a new constitution. That gentleman referred the arguments on the subject to a member of the legislature of Virginia. About the close of that year, a proposition was made and carried in the legislature to appoint commissioners, to form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and to request the other states to concur in the measure.

Of the Formation of the New Constitution. In pursuance of the request of Virginia, most of the states appointed delegates, who assembled at Annapolis September 14, 1786. But, on examining their commissions, it was judged that their powers were too limited to enable them to accomplish any desirable purpose. They therefore adjourned, with instructions to advise the states to appoint agents with more ample powers, to meet at Philadelphia, the next year. Accordingly delegates from the several states assembled in that city in May 1787, and appointed the venerable Washington for their president. That gentleman had retired to his farm in 1783, with a fixed determination never more to engage in public affairs: but he was selected by Virginia as one of the delegates, on this important occasion, and pressed to accept the appointment. After four months de-

ration, the convention agreed to a frame of govern-
t for the United States, and recommended it to the
ral states for adoption.

f the Ratification of the Federal Government. The
es referred the question of adopting the frame of
ernment, to conventions appointed for that ex-
as purpose. On that occasion popular jealousy ap-
red in all its force. It was objected, that the
n of government proposed, abridged the states of
ir sovereignty, and amounted to a consolidation.
is was a fruitful theme of declamation, notwith-
nding all the calamities that had arisen from the
lousies and clashing interests of the states, and a
nt of uniformity in public measures. Many other
jections were urged, especially in the large states.
t length however, the proposed frame of federal
vernment was accepted and ratified in 1787, by
even states, and became the constitution of the U-
ted States. The first convention in North Carolina
jected it; as did the town meetings to which it
as referred in Rhode Island. But North Carolina
ceded to it in November 1789, and Rhode Island in
ay 1790. The ratification of the constitution was
lebrated in the large cities, with great joy and splen-
d exhibitions A ship, the emblem of commerce,
d stages for mechanical labour, the emblems of
anufactures, were mounted on wheels and drawn
rough the streets, attended by immense proces-
ons of citizens arranged according to their profes-
ons; while bands of music, streaming flags and the
ar of cannon, manifested the enthusiasm with which
e people received the authority of the national gov-
nment.

Of the Organization of the New Constitution. Ac-
rding to the constitution, the several states elected
eir delegates to the congress, and by a unanimous
te, general Washington was elected the first pres-
ent. With deep regret, that distinguished citizen
as compelled, by the esteem and confidence of his
llow citizens, to leave his beloved retirement, and
cept the high office of supreme magistrate. On

the 30th of April 1789, he was inaugurated, President of the United States. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of the city hall in New-York, in presence of a countless multitude of spectators; where the oath was administered to him by the chancellor of the state of New-York. The importance of the act, the novelty of the scene, the dignity of the general's character, the gravity of his manner and the reverence with which he bowed to kiss the sacred volume, impressed upon the transaction a solemnity never before witnessed in America.

SECTION XV.

United States of America.

Of the Situation of the United States.

THE territory of the United States lies in the temperate or variable climate of North America, between the thirty-first and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude and the sixty third and ninety-seventh degrees of longitude west from Greenwich, in England.

Of the Northern Boundary of the United States. The nothern limit of the United States is, a line beginning at a point due north of the source of the eastern branch of the river Scoodue, on the high lands which divide the rivers which fall into the Atlantic on one side, and the river Iroquois or St Lawrence on the other; thence extending along the highlands to the north-west-most head of Connecticut river; thence down the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and *running in* that latitude to the Iroquois; thence along *the middle of* that river and of the great lakes to the

ake of the woods and from the north-west most point f that lake, due west to the Mississippi *

Of the other Limits of the United States. The western limit of the United States is, a line drawn along he middle of the Mississippi to the termination of the hirty first degree of north latitude. The southern limt is a line drawn due east in the said thirty-first degree of latitude, from the Mississippi to the river Apaachicola, or Catahochy, and along the middle of that iver to its junction with Flint river; thence a strait ine to the head of the river St. Mary, and down the middle of that river to the Atlantic. The eastern limit of the United States is, a line drawn from the mouth of the Scoodue along the middle of the river to the source of its eastern branch, and thence a due north line to the highlands; and the shore of the main land from that river to St. Mary; but the jurisdiction of the United States extends to all the islands lying in the Atlantic, within twenty leagues of the main land.

Of the Extent of the United States. The length of the United States from north to south is, on an average, one thousand miles—the breadth, on the north line, is fifteen hundred miles and on the south, seven hundred; giving an area or surface of more than one thousand miles square, and containing at least six hundred and forty millions of acres. Of this area, it is estimated that water covers about fifty millions of acres, which leaves five hundred and ninety millions of acres of land

Of the Climate of the United States. With respect to climate, the Atlantic states may be divided into three regions. The first or northern region comprehends that part of the territory, lying north of the beginning of the fortieth degree of latitude in which there is a predominance of cold and severe frost in winter. This

**Late discoveries prove that the northern sources of the Mississippi are far south of a west line from the lake of the woods, so that a part of the western limit of the United States is not defined by the treaty of peace made in 1783.*

region includes the states of New-Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, New-York, and a part of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania. The second or middle region comprehends the territory from the fortieth to the thirty-seventh degree of latitude, in which the weather of winter is very variable, and subject to continual alterations of frost and rain. This region includes a part of New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, and the states of Delaware, Maryland and Virginia. The third or southern region, from the thirty-seventh to the thirty-first degree of latitude, and including the Carolinas and Georgia, has a predominance of mild weather in winter, though it is not exempt from occasional frosts.

Of the Temperature of the Several Regions. The United States are subject to the extremes of heat and cold. The winters in the northern region usually commence in December and end in February. The earth is covered with snow, and the rivers with ice from eight to twelve weeks But in hard winters, the frost begins about the middle or latter part of November and ends in March. In mild winters, there is no severe frost of many days continuance, and little snow—In the middle region, the frost is less steady, though often severe. In ordinary winters, the rivers are occasionally obstructed with ice, but not for a great length of time, and snow is of short duration. In hard winters, the rivers in this region are covered with a bridge of ice, for six or eight weeks. In the southern region, the frosts of an ordinary winter are very inconsiderable, and snow is scarcely seen In hard winters frost and snow continue sometimes for several days and even weeks.

Of the number of severe Winters. Winters of the utmost severity seldom exceed four or five in a hundred years. Those which are less severe, but which may be called cold winters, are one third or at least a fourth of the whole number. Very mild winters, in which there is little frost and snow in the northern region, *are nearly* as rare as very hard winters These remarks *are applicable* to all parts of the territory of the United *States*, east of the mountains. On the west of the

mountains, the weather is milder in the same latitudes, and storms of wind, rain, and snow, less frequent and violent.

Of the Temperature of the Summer Heat. In all parts of the United States, the heat of summer is very great. In the southern region, the summer commences in April or May, and ends in October or November. In the middle and northern regions, the heat of summer begins in May or June, and ends in September, or in the northern part of the territory, in August. In the more northerly parts of the United States, frost is seen in almost every month of the year. In general, the winters in America, are as cold in the fortieth degree of latitude, as they are in Europe in the fiftieth.

Of Spring and Autumn. The spring of the year is marked with very variable weather, in every part of the United States. Warm days succeeded by cold nights, alternately thawing and freezing the surface of the earth; bleak westerly winds, followed by warm humid winds from the south, or damp chilly winds from the east, distinguish the months of March and April—and frequently the first weeks in May are distinguished by almost constant easterly rains. Autumn is a far more pleasant season. From the latter part of September to the middle of November, sometimes much later, the weather is temperate and dry, and to the blessings of abundant crops, is added a serene sky, which enables the farmer to collect and secure the fruits of the earth.

Of the proportion of Dry Weather. America is remarkable for a great proportion of dry weather. About two hundred and fifty days in the year, on an average, are nearly unclouded. The days which are mostly cloudy, do not exceed seventy or eighty; and those in which rain or snow falls the whole day, are scarcely half the number.

Of the Winds. The winds most prevalent in the Atlantic States are from the westward—in winter they are north-westerly, and in summer, south-westerly. *These are dry winds,* and especially the north-westerly *winds, which are* accompanied with a rapid evaporation.

and consequently in summer are cool and refres
and in winter, very cold. North winds are not
frequent, but are always cool or cold. North-eas
and easterly winds are frequent in all seasons, e
the summer months, and are accompanied with a
ling dampness, which occasions the most disag
ble sensations. A south-east wind, at least i
northern and middle regions, seldom or never fai
produce rain, in twelve hours; and often blows a
pest, but is of short duration, seldom exceeding t
hours. Nor are gales of wind from the south-ea
the American coast, of great extent—they usuall
gin within a hundred miles of the coast, and s
reach a hundred miles into the interior country—
not half the distance. A south wind is usually v
and often attended with rain.

Of Sea Breezes. On all the coast of the U
States, westward and southward of Cape Cod, a cu
of air from the ocean is cool and refreshing in
mer. To the northward of that cape, the sea br
are attended with a fog, or a cool damp vapor, w
is chilling to the human body and very disagre
In spring, these breezes prevail on all the coast
Cape Cod to Newfoundland: and are often accom
ed with thick fogs, occasioned probably by a co
sion of the warm vapors from the gulf stream.
fogs prevail till June or July, and are not more u
sant to the feelings, than troublesome and dang
to seamen. To the westward of Montauk Point,
fogs are far less common.

Of Storms. The most durable gales of win
from the north-east. These, in spring and autum
usually accompanied with rain, and in winter

Of Summer Rains. The rains of summer are of wo kinds; durable rains from the east or south, or udden and temporary showers. In some years the ummer rains are mostly from the south or south-east, ttended with a humid state of atmosphere, extremely elaxing to the human body. Such rains are not usu-lly accompanied with thunder. Sudden showers col-ect in the west, in hot weather, or after two or three lays of extreme heat; and usually between noon and vening. A black cloud is speedily formed, and driven y violent wind from the north-west or west accompa-nied with lived flashes of lightning and tremendous hunder, with torrents of rain or hail. The duration f these showers is from half an hour to three hours. ometimes these showers are attended with a hurricane f wind, called a tornado, driving forward with a whir-ing motion, twisting off the trunks of the firmest trees, nd levelling buildings, fences and plants in promiscu-us destruction.

Of the Effects of these Showers. The summer show-rs, collecting over the mountainous parts of the coun-y and accompanied with a current of air from the ool regions of the atmosphere, not only refresh vegit-tion by a copious supply of water, but bring along a ortion of pure and cool air, which is highly salubri-us and invigorating to the human body, when almost xhausted with extreme heat: and for a day or two af-er the gust, the wind usually blows from the west-ard. At the same time the coolness of the air is in-reased and continued by the rapid evaporation which ollows a shower; the heat of the earth combining with he water, being carried off in an invisible form.

Of the Weather Westward of the Mountains That art of the United States which lies westward of the igh lands, which divide the streams falling into the tlantic, from those which fall into the lakes and the lississippi, has a more temperate climate than the me latitudes on the Atlantic, and is less subject to *iolent storms.* It is remarkable also that showers *ieet more suddenly* over that part of the country— *rain does not* begin gradually, but almost instantly

pours down a torrent of water—and all at once it c
es, as in the twinkling of an eye. Snow falls frequ
ly and without wind. Thunder also is les freque
some parts of the interior country, than it is east
of the mountains.

Of the Climate in Regard to Health. The nort
Atlantic region of the United States, being mostly
hilly land, is favoured with a pure air and good w
and distinguished by the salubrity of its climate.
a very few places, low and marshy lands are foun
produce autumnal diseases. The mountainous pa
the middle and southern regions, are, as in all pa
the globe, healthy. From the Hudson southward
flat lands along the Atlantic and by the sides of ri
are infested with autumnal fevers. In the norther
gion, one half the children born live to be nine
years old—one seventh live to the age of seventy,
one thirteenth, to eighty. The annual deaths am
only to one in seventy or seventy-five of all the inh
ants living.

Of the Diseases of the United States The ordi
diseases of the United States are the same as t
which invade mankind in all similar climates.
usual epidemics are hooping cough, measles, influe
scarlet fever, with some milder eruptive dise
These diseases are periodical, though the periods
not exactly uniform. The autumnal diseases are c
ly dysentery and bilious fevers of all grades,
slight intermittents to the malignant fever, which i
nominated pestilence. The dysentery appears, in
tered cases, every year; but in some autumns bec
epidemic with great mortality. It however neve
vades large cities with such general mortality, a
does particular parts of the country. The malig
bilious fever occurs occasionally, but chiefly in
towns on the sea coast, or on rivers, or near lakes
stagnant water.

Of Chronic Diseases. In the northern region o
United States, and especially on the sea shore, the
sumption is the most general and fatal chron
plaint; carrying off in some places, a fifth, o

urth of the inhabitants. In the middle region, it is revalent, but in a less degree; and in the southern, still less destructive. Rheumatic complaints, gout nd hypochondriac affections are common. In the ountry west of the mountains, between the Ohio and he lakes, the goiter, or swelling upon the throat, is ery prevalent, among the whites, but not among the atives.

SECTION XVI.

Vegetable Productions.

Of the Native Trees of the United States.

IN the variety, size and beauty of its forest trees, o country can exceed the United States. The kinds f trees found in every part of our country are, oak, ine, maple, beech, ash, spruce, fir, hemlock, hickory, lm, chesnut, willow, poplar, cedar, locust, sassafras, aurel, birch, cherry, bass-wood, butternut, hornbeam, ay, button-wood, elder, dogwood. Of several of these inds there are many varieties.

Of Trees peculiar to particular Regions The lack walnut is indigenous, in the country southward f the Hudson, and not eastward; but when transplaned, it grows well in New-England. The persimmon, hinecpin, catalpa, papaw, plane-tree, magnolia, aloe ypress, paccan, pimento, and some others, are found olely or chiefly in the middle, southern and western egions of the United States. The live oak, the best f timber for ships, is a native of the southern regions, hiefly of the islands on the coast of South Carolina nd Georgia, and of the Mississippi territory.

Of Shrubs and wild Fruit Trees. The crab-apple s found in all parts of the United States, and in the *outhern and middle* regions, cider is made of its fruit. *ost parts of this* country abound with wild cherrie *rants, grapes*, strawberries, huckleberries, blackb

ries, dewberries, raspberries, barberries, mulberries, bayberries, juniperberries, filberts, hazle-nuts, bilberries, plumbs, goosberries, sumac, honey-suckle, myrtle, cranberries. The latter shrub is peculiar to America, and furnishes our tables with one of the richest sauces.

Of Foreign Trees and Fruits cultivated in America. Most of the fruit trees cultivated on the eastern continent thrive well in the United States. Among these are apples, peaches, pears, quinces, cherries, plums, apricots, nectarines, gooseberries, raspberries, melons, oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, olives, and almonds. Apples thrive best in the middle and northern regions—peaches and melons, in the southern. The peach is found in a good degree of perfection as far north as Boston, but farther northward, degenerates and is cultivated with difficulty. Oranges, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, figs, and olives, grow as far north as Virginia, but are subject to be killed by the frosts of winter—In South Carolina and Georgia, they are cultivated with success.

Of Garden Vegetables. Every species of vegetable, cultivated for the use of the table in the old world, thrives well in America. Of these we have peas, beans, cabbages, cauliflowers, spinnage, celery, lettuce, asparagus, turnips, onions, beets, raddishes, carrots, parsnips, cucumbers, and a variety of other kinds, used in cookery and for medicinal purposes. The sugar cane has been lately introduced into the Misissippi territory, and is cultivated with success, affording sugar of the best quality.

Of Plants Indigenous in America. Maize, potatoes, tobacco, pumpkins, squashes, hops, and ginseng, are native productions of America Of these the three first are of the most use. Maize, commonly called indian corn, is one of the most extensively useful grains known in the world; as it thrives through a range of *nearly one* hundred degrees of latitude, or fifty degrees *on each side* of the equator, and is one of the most *nourishing* articles of food for man and beast. In the *Southern* parts of the United States, this plant grows

he height of twelve or fourteen feet, and the ear
ngs from the twelfth or thirteenth joint, far above
reach of a man standing on the ground—In the mid-
parts of the United States, the species cultivated
v to the height of eight or ten feet, and the ears
ng from the fifth, sixth or seventh joint—In the
e northern parts and in Canada, a species of four
ve feet growth, with ears shooting from the sec-
and third joints, is the only one which the short-
of the summer heat, will permit to come to matu-
What an admirable proof is this of the wisdom
goodness of the Creator, thus to fit the several spe-
of this all important grain, to the several climates
ıe globe!

f the Potatoe The discovery of America added
invaluable root to the esculent vegetables of the
ern continent. It was found and carried to Europe
ome of the adventurers under sir Walter Raleigh,
ease with which it is cultivated, the great quan-
of food which it furnishes from a small portion of
, the little injury that its cultivation does to the
and its nourishing qualities, which render it a
titute for bread, and the ease and little expense
ressing it for the table, render it one of the most
ul plants, especially to the poor; and its cultiva-
has, in no small degree, diminished the chan-
of famine, which was formerly so frequent in Eu-

f Tobacco. When tobacco was first introduced in-
nd, king James issued a proclamation against
use of such an offensive plant. But the preju-
s against it gradually subsided, and it now forms a
iderable article of consumption in all parts of the
d. It thrives well in all parts of the United States
, the northern region, it is cultivated chiefly for
estic use, but in the middle states, chiefly in Ma-
nd and Virginia, it constitutes an important article
xport.

f the Kinds of Grain not Indigenous. Wheat, rye,
y, oats, buckwheat, millet and rice, have been in-
ced into the United States. Of these wheat is the

most generally cultivated, and is esteemed the finest grain. On suitable soils, which are the dry and gravelly, or the rich mould of new lands, it thrives in every part of the United States, except on the Atlantic shore of the eastern states. Even in that part of the country, it was cultivated with success for thirty or forty years after our ancestors settled in America, but it now fails. Rice is cultivated only in the Carolinas and Georgia, where it is raised in great quantities, for exportation. The other species of grain grow well in any part of the United States, and since the failure of wheat in the eastern states, rye is much used for bread, either alone, or mixed with maiz, or in some parts, where wheat will grow, with a small portion of wheat, which mixture is called meslin.

Of Plants cultivated for Clothing. Hemp and flax grow well in all parts of the United States, where the soil is sufficiently rich and suitable. Flax is every where raised for clothing, in greater or less quantities, and manufactured into coarse cloth. The seed is exported to Ireland, or furnishes oil for paints. Hemp for cordage may be cultivated generally, but its culture is confined to a few towns. Cotton grows well in the southern and western parts of the United States, and is cultivated in great quantities, as well for domestic manufacture, as for exportation. Indigo thrives well in the Carolinas and Georgia, as well as in the Mississippi territory, and was formerly a considerable article of export; but the high price of cotton has lately occasioned the culture of indigo to be neglected.

Of Silk and Vines. Silk may be cultivated in all parts of the United States, care being taken to preserve the eggs of the worms from the frost in winter. The attempts made in New-England to introduce the culture demonstrate that the climate and soil are favorable, and that nothing but the high price of labor prevents an attention to this object. Vines are the spontaneous production of all parts of this country, and some species of *native* grapes are of an excellent quality. The species *of foreign* grapes, which yield some of the best wines *in Europe*, are introduced and thrive well in the mid-

le and even in some parts of the northern region of the Jnited States; but the making of wine is yet confined o a few places.

SECTION XVII.

Animals of the United States.

Of Native Animals.

THE following quadrupeds are natives of the U-nited States, the buffalo, moose, elk, bear, deer, wolf, vild cat or lynx, panther, catamount, wolverin, fox, beaver, otter, martin, raccoon, hare, rabit, muskrat or musquash, weasel, squirrel, of several kinds, one kind of rat opossum, skunk, mink, woodchuck, ermine, seal, mole, field mouse, porcupine. Many of these animals, fitted to live only in the forest, retire westward as cultivation proceeds in that direction, and are no longer seen near the Atlantic

Of the Mammoth. On the Wallkill in the state of New-York; near the salt-licks in Kentucky; and in other parts of America have been found the bones of some huge animal now extinct It is supposed by some to have been of the elephant species, and has obtained the appellation of *Mammoth.* A skeleton of this animal, nearly complete, may be seen in the Museum at Philadelphia. Its size is that of the largest species of elephant, and a tall man may walk upright under its belly. This beast must have fed himself by means of a proboscis, as the neck is not long enough to reach the earth, when standing: but the form of the teeth, and jaws, and especially the spiral form and position of its tusks, make it certain that the animal was different from any which is now known to exist.

Of Domestic Animals. The animals kept by man for use, are derived from such as were imported; such as *the horse, cattle* of all kinds, sheep, asses, goats, *dogs, cats, swine.* All these thrive well in the United

States. The mountainous districts of the southern states, and all parts of the northern furnish oxen and cows of the largest and best kind. The sheep are inferior to the best in Europe. Elegant horses of English breed, are raised, chiefly in the middle and southern states, and a race of Dutch horses, very large and excellent for draft, in Pennsylvania. In New-England and Canada, the horses are smaller but very hardy and serviceable.

Of Wild Fowls. The wild fowls of the United States are too numerous to be specified. Some of the most remarkable are, the eagle, falcon, hawks, of various sorts, herons, owls, swans, crows, turkies, geese, ducks of many kinds, pelicans, brants, pigeons, partridges, quails, woodcocks, woodpeckers of various sorts, swallows, martins, buzzards, blackbirds, robbins, larks, blue birds, rens, sparrows, gulls, plovers, snipes, cranes and storks.

Of Domestic Fowls. The domestic fowls are of foreign origin, as the goose, duck, pigeons, and dunghill fowls. They thrive in all parts of this country. The wild goose and turkey may be tamed, but the turkey, which grows to the weight of thirty pounds or more when wild, degenerates by domestication

Of Birds of Passage. Some species of birds leave the cold regions in autumn, and visit the more southern climes. Wild geese and pigeons, and some kinds of ducks are of this sort. Many kinds of fowls are so hardy as to remain, and fly about in the severity of ordinary winters, without danger, as the crow, the partridge, quail and snowbird. But in very hard winters, these birds are known to perish in great numbers. The swallow, about the last week in August, seeks a shelter in ponds, rivers and marshes, and remains torpid till spring. But most kinds of birds retreat to the cavities of hollow trees, and like places.

Of Fishes. The sea and rivers in the United States, abound with an immense variety of fish, many of them of the most useful kind. Whales are often caught near the coast. Cod fish are taken on the shores of the northern region, and on the banks of Newfoundland, in

such abundance, as to form a large article of our exports. Holibut, haddock, mullet, whiting, plaice, mackarel, bass, tetaug or blackfish, sheeps head, and a great variety of small fish, fill our markets at most seasons of the year. Alewives are caught in vast numbers for foreign markets, and menhaden or white fish, for manuring land; and our rivers abound with sturgeon.

Of Shad and Salmon. In April and May the rivers are stocked with shad in immense numbers, and furnish the inhabitants with no small part of their food. The salmon, in the same months, frequent the rivers from the north to the Connecticut, in which they are taken in great numbers. But that fish is never found in rivers which discharge into the Atlantic westward of the Connecticut. The small streams abound with trout, roach, perch and eels, and the lakes, with their tributary streams, are well supplied with excellent fish, especially with the pike and salmon trout of a large size.

Of Shell Fish. Oysters of the best kinds cover the shores of the United States. Lobsters of the largest kind abound in many places. Crabs, shrimps, muscles, and clams of various species are found in our harbours and creeks; and we are occasionally favoured with turtle from the more southern climes. No country can boast of a richer profusion of food, constantly furnished from the hills, the forest, and the bosom of the deep!

Of Amphibious Animals. Our swamps and ponds abound with frogs, one species of which called a bull frog, is very large. The tortoise or turtle is common to all parts of America. Animals of the lizard kind are numerous; and the aligator or crocodile, the largest of that species, is found in the rivers of the southern states.

Of Serpents. The principal species of these animals are the rattle snake, the black snake of several kinds, the viper, the adder of several sorts, one of which is amphibious, and another frequents houses, the green and striped snakes. The rattle snake has a fatal poison *in a bag, at the* root of his large teeth, which when *he bites is conveyed* by a small opening through the

teeth, to the object bitten. But this snake is slow in his movement, and usually gives notice of his presence by a buzzing noise made with the rattles at the end of his tail. He lives among the rocks, and in summer descends into the meadows. It is remarkable that the lands which are covered with beech and maple trees, and contain no rocky precipices, are free from all large venomous serpents.

Of small reptiles and insects. The United States, in common with all warm and temperate climates, abound with small animals of the reptile and insect kinds. Few of them however are venomous; the honey bee is very useful, and in the mountains and hilly parts of the country, none of them are vexatious. Near swamps and marshes, the musketoes, and in some places, gnats, are extremely troublesome. In the flat lands in the Carolinas and Georgia, it is necessary for people to defend themselves at night against the musketoes, by surrounding their beds with gauze curtains or pavilions.

Of the Locust and Grasshopper Locusts appear, in vast numbers, at particular times, and are supposed to be periodical; but in the United States they do little injury. Grasshoppers are seen every summer; but are harmless except in very dry seasons, when they multiply to an astonishing degree, and devour the grass, corn and other useful vegetables.

Of the Canker worm. In the northern and middle states, canker worms appear at certain times, in such numbers as to injure the apple tree. Their appearance seems to be periodical They are most destructive to trees on light, dry land—and seldom invade trees which stand on a stiff clay, or moist land. They are produced from an egg deposited on the trees by a miller, which comes from the earth and ascends the trees in spring as soon as the frost is dissolved. To prevent their ascent, it is usual to encircle the trees with tar, and this, if applied to a wisp or band of tow, around the trees, will not injure them. These worms feed till *June, stripping* the trees of their foliage—then suddenly disappear. They generally appear, for two, three or four years in succession.

Of other noxious insects. Caterpillars, of various species, appear, at times in such numbers as to be very destructive to fruit trees, and some forest trees. The rosebug and the slug also, in particular seasons, do great injury. A white worm, or grub, in some parts of the country devours the roots of the grass, and gives to the rich meadow and pasture the appearance of a barren heath A black worm occasionally invades the grass and corn in May, and June, and in such myriads as to lay waste the fields; and an insect has lately attacked the wheat. But although these and many other insects ravage at times particular places, or particular sorts of vegetation, yet our crops are usually rich and abundant.

SECTION XVIII.

Mines, Minerals, Stones and Fossils.

Of the Precious Metals.

WITHIN the United States, gold and silver ores have not been discovered in such quantities as to command attention; except recently in Cabarras county in North Carolina. A copper mine on the Pasaic, a few miles north of Newark in New-Jersey, has been wrought to advantage, and an association by the name of the Soho company, has been incorporated for the purpose of prosecuting the business. Great quantities of copper have also been found in the country bordering on Lake Superior.

Of Lead. A valuable lead mine has been wrought near the banks of the Kanhaway, in Virginia. One hundred pounds of ore are said to yield sixty of lead. Still more valuable mines have been discovered on the banks of the Missisippi, extending from the Rock River northward one hundred and fifty miles. In Louisana, near the Missorie, very rich mines of lead are wrought by a citizen of the United States.

Of Iron. Iron is found in many parts of the United States, as in Assowamset pond, in Middleborough, in Massachusetts—at Salisbury and Stafford in Connecticut—at Egg-Harbor and in Morris county, in New-Jersey—on the Hudson in Columbia county—and in other parts too numerous to be particularized. This valuable metal is cast into cannon, hollow ware, or pigs, and wrought into anchors, bars and nail rods. But our own mines and forges do not supply the consumption of the country, and large quantities of Swedish iron and steel in bars are imported from the Baltic

Of valuable Stones. The United States are furnished with inexhaustible quantitities of lime stone. A range of this stone extends from Connecticut, through the western towns of Massachusetts and Vermont, to the Missisko, more than two hundred miles, furnishing an abundance of lime. In some places it furnishes marble both white and clouded, of a good quality for the foundations of buildings, for steps, tomb stones and other uses. On the Schuylkill a few miles from Philadelphia, is found marble of a good quality which supplies the inhabitants with building stones, pieces for chimnies, hearths and tomb stones. Of this is built that large and handsome structure the bank of Pennsylvania. Many other parts of this country abound with marble and limestone. Kentucky is underspread with limestone, and a body of it runs through North Carolina.

Of Free Stone and Slate. Free stone suitable for the foundation of buildings abounds in various parts of America, as at Chatham, East-Hartford, Branford and East-Havon in Connecticut, and on the banks of the Passaic in New-Jersey. Slate has been found in various places, and on the east bank of the Hudson, above Fishkill, a quarry of it is wrought with success; great quantities of slate of a good kind and suitable for covering buildings, being sent to market from this quarry.

Of Fossil, Coal and Peat. Coal for fuel is furnished by the United States, in the greatest abundance. A mine on the Powhattan river, in Virginia, is now wrought and coal of the best quality is sent from it to various parts of the United States. On the Susquehanna—on

the Ohio—near Pittsburgh, and in Kentucky, are vast beds of this fuel, destined hereafter to furnish our fires when wood shall fail. Peat is found at Newtown, on Long-Island, at Norwalk, Fairfield, Woodbridge and Hambden in Connecticut; and already begins to be used by the inhabitants, and exported to New-York. It is also found in other parts of the United States.

Of other Fossils and Minerals Isingglass, black lead, allum, ocher, soap-stone, sulphur, marl, chalk. and antimony have been found in the United States. But the natural history of North America, more especially its mineral productions, have yet been little investigated. Doubtless many mineral substances, constituting a vast body of natural riches, remain yet undiscovered in the bosom of mountains; but which, when labor shall be cheaper, the study of mineralogy pursued with more ardor, and the wants of our people more pressing, will be found and converted to useful purposes.

Of Mineral Springs. Numerous mineral springs have already been discovered in the United States. At Stafford in Connecticut is a spring whose waters possess chalybeate properties, and are valued for their effects in scorbutic and rheumatic cases. The warm spring at Lebanon in the State of New-York, is remarkable for the quantity and temperature of the water it discharges—Its temparature is marked by 71° of Farenheit, which renders it a pleasant bath—The effects of its waters in curing scorbutic and rheumatic affections, have rendered it a place of resort during the summer months.

Of the Springs at Saratoga and Balltown. The springs at Saratoga and Balltown are numerous, and their waters possess strong mineral properties. Some of them are powerful chalybeates—and others contain solutions of salt, from which is manufactured purgative salt equal to any imported. These springs are places of great resort in summer, and their waters are found very beneficial in bilious complaints, indigestions and visceral obstructions.

Of other Springs. In the town of Phelps, sixteen miles north of the Seneca Lake, is a spring so strongly

impregnated with sulphur, that its waters deposit la quantities of that substance on the earth in their ch nel. The salt springs near the Onondago lake, numerous, and contain such a portion of salt in so tion that it is easily obtained by evaporation; and s ficient quantities are there made to supply all the terior of the state of New-York—indeed the quant that may be made is unlimited. In Virginia and Ge gia are medicinal springs of high reputation, and Kentucky, salt springs are found to supply the west states with the necessary article of salt. Simi springs are found in other parts of the western count

SECTION XIX.

PRESENT CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Especially in regard to their Political, Civil, Co mercial and Economical state.

Of the Division of the Territory of the United Sta

THE territory of the United States is divid for the purposes of government, into states or comm wealths; and into districts subject to the ordinances congress. The states are seventeen; fourteen of wh lie chiefly on the east and south of the great ridge mountains which divide the waters of the Atla rivers from the tributary streams of the Missisippi, Iroquois and the Lakes—and three states lie westw of the same ridge. Thirteen of these states w formed during the revolution, from colonies wh bounds had been defined by charters, or settled agreement or authority, while subject to the Brit crown. The other four have been formed and recei into the union, since the establishment of independen

Of the Names of the States. The Atlantic sta are, New-Hampsire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rh Island, Connecticut, New-York, New-Jersey, Pe

vania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia. All these, Vermont excepted, were formed during the revolution. The western states which have been erected since the revolution, are Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio. The country west of Georgia and south of Tennessee, is called the Missisippi Territory, and governed by a special ordinance of Congress

New-Hampshire.

Of the Situation of New-Hampshire. New-Hampshire whose name is derived from a county in England, from whence many of its first inhabitants came, is comprehended between forty-two degrees forty-one minutes, and forty five degrees, thirty minutes, of north latitude; and between seventy degrees, forty minutes, and seventy-two degrees, twenty-eight minutes, of west longitude from Greenwich.

Of its Bounds. The south line of New-Hampshire, adjacent to Massachusetts, runs three miles north of the Merrimac, to a point north of Patucket falls, and thence due west to the Connecticut. Its west boundary is the western side of Connecticut, which separates it from Vermont. On the north, it is bounded by the north line of the United States, and adjacent to Canada. Its eastern boundary is the Atlantic and the Piscataway to its source; then a line running two degrees west of north to Canada, and dividing it from Maine.

Of its Extent. The length of New-Hampshire, from south to north, is one hundred and sixty-eight miles. Its utmost breadth, from east to west, is ninety miles. The state contains somewhat more than six millions of acres of surface, about one hundred thousand of which, are covered with water.

Of its Counties and Towns. This state is divided into six counties—Rockingham, Strafford, Hillsborough, Cheshire, Grafton and Cohos. It contains nearly two *hundred incorporated* townships, besides other districts *called locations.* The Chief towns are Portsmouth

Exeter, Concord, Amherst, Keene, Charlestown, Walpole, Haverhill, and Plymouth.

Of Portsmouth. Portsmouth, the largest town in New-Hampshire, and a seat of the courts in Rockingham county, is situated on the south bank of the Piscataway, about two miles from the sea, sixty-three miles north-east of Boston, in latitude 43. 5. north. It is the only commercial town and sea port in the state, and is a place of considerable trade. Its buildings are chiefly of wood, and a large quarter of the town was laid in ashes by a fire in December 1802. Its public buildings are a court-house, a market-house, a bank, a workhouse, three congregational churches, one episcopal, and one for universalists.—Its inhabitants in 1800 were five thousand three hundred and forty. In this town are two banks.

Of Exeter. Exeter lies upon the Swamscot, a branch of the Pascataway, at the falls, fifteen miles south-west of Portsmouth. It is one of the seats of the courts in Rockingham, contains a court-house, a jail, two congregational churches, a handsome academy and a bank. It lies at the head of navigation, contains a number of mills, and is remarkable for ship-building. Its inhabitants by the census of the year 1800 were seventeen hundred and thirty.

Of Concord. Concord is a handsome town, on the west bank of the Merrimac, about fifty-five miles northwesterly from Portsmouth. It contains a congregational church and an academy, and is the seat of government. Just below the town is an elegant toll bridge across the Merrimac. In the year 1800, the inhabitants were two thousand and fifty.

Of other considerable Towns. Amherst, the shire town of Hillsborough county, on a branch of Souhegan river, sixty miles west of Portsmouth, contained in the year 1800, two thousand, one hundred and fifty inhabitants, and an academy. Keene, in Cheshire county, contained in the year 1800, sixteen hundred and fifty inhabitants, and has a bank. Charlestown, on the Connecticut, in the same year, contained thirteen hundred and sixty inhabitants. Walpole, in the same year, con-

ıed seventeen hundred and fifty inhabitants. Plyıth a seat of the courts in Grafton county, on Ba-'s river at its junction with the Pemigewasset, forive miles north of Concord, contained in the year 0, seven hundred and fifty inhabitants Hanover, seat of Dartmouth college, contained in the same r, nineteen hundred and twenty inhabitants. At place is a bridge over the Connecticut, consisting single arch of one hundred and forty feet chord. the falls in Walpole, there is also a bridge over river. Haverhill on the Connecticut, is a considee town and has a bank.

f the General Face of the Country. The state of v-Hampshire, like all the northern region of the Ud States, is hilly or mountainous; except some ns and marshes on the sea shore or the banks of rs. The meadows and intervales are of a rich d, and free from stones; but the soil of the upland ravel, sandy loam, clay or a mixture.

f the Chief Mountains. A range of mountains runs reen the Connecticut and Merrimac; beginning with Monadnock, near the south line of the state, and ning north, it is distinguished by the Sunnapee and shelock or Moosehilloc, and finally it terminates he most lofty elevations in New-England, the ite Mountains. There are other mountains on the of the Merrimac, but less elevated.

f the chief Rivers. The Connecticut washes the border of the state; the Merrimac penetrates a iderable part of it from north to south, and with ributary streams, waters the interior of the state. Pascataway, with its tributary streams, waters the ern part of the state; the Sauco and Androscoggin northern parts.

f the Ponds and Lakes. Winipisiogy lake, twenty miles in length; Umbagog in the northern part of state; Squam, Sunnapay, and great Ossapy, are principal bodies of standing water; but the smalonds are numerous.

f the Population. The number of inhabitants in *Hampshire* in the year 1767, was estimated at fif-

ty two thousand— in 1775, at eighty two thousand— and by actual enumeration in 1790, the number was one hundred and forty-two thousand. In 1800, the number had increased to one hundred and eighty-four thousand.

Of the Exports. The chief articles of export are ships, lumber, fish, beef, pork and other provisions, horses, pot and pearl ashes, and flax-seed. Ship building has always been the employment of the towns on the Pascataway and its branches. Lumber and fish are carried to the West-Indies, Spain, or the Azores and Canaries; horses, beef and pork to the West-Indies; pot and pearl ashes to Great-Britain, and flax-seed to Ireland.

Of the course of Trade before the War. Before the revolution the king claimed the pine trees suitable for masts and his navy was furnished from America with masts and spars, a great part of which were cut in New-Hampshire. Ships were built and loaded for the West-Indies; and there they took freight for England, where they were sold; or they were freighted with timber and spars directly for England, and sold. With the proceeds, the merchants paid for their British goods.

Of the Fishery. A considerable number of boats and schooners are employed in the cod fishery. The boats take the fish about the isles of shoals, within two or three leagues of Portsmouth. The fish taken in February and march is cured with little salt, and being kept alternately above and below ground, becomes mellow and of a red color. This is called dumb fish and is of the first quality. The schooners fish on the banks of Newfoundland, and the fish taken, is sent to Spain and the West-Indies.

Of the Ports of Export. New-Hampshire has not more than eighteen miles of sea coast, and no port on the coast except Portsmouth, which is a port of entry and from this is exported a considerable part of the *produce* of the state. But by means of the situation of the state, no small portion of commodities is exported by other channels. The lumber that pass

the Merrimac, goes to Newburyport—a part of
dc of the western towns is by the Connecticut
tford and New-York—while the northern towns
asily communicate with the sea ports in Maine,
ith Portsmouth.

the value of its Exports. The exports from
lampshire for several years after the national
ment was established, fell short of two hundred
nd dollars a year; in the year 1800, their value
arly to four hundred and thirty-two thousand
s. But a great part of the produce of this state
ped from ports in other states.

Manufactures. The principal manufactures are
f coarse cloths in private families; but not suf-
for the inhabitants. Pot and pearl ashes, iron,
r, saddles, shoes, potter's ware, and a few other
s, are also manufactured.

the state of Learning. An old law of the colony
d every town, containing one hundred families,
vide a grammar school; in which also was to be
reading, writing and arithmetic. This law was
ll executed. Since the revolution, a law of the
as directed the maintenance of schools in the
l towns under certain penalties. There are also
libraries in some towns; and news-papers cir-
in almost all parts of the state.

the Academies. At Exeter an academy, founded
m Phillips, Esq. and called after his name, was
orated in 1781. At Atkinson, an academy,
d by Nathaniel Peabody, Esq. was incorporated
0.—Academies are also founded at Amherst,
estown and Concord.

Dartmouth College. At Hanover, in Grafton coun-
a college founded by Doctor Wheelock in 1769,
special view to the instruction of young Indi-
Although this object has in a great measure fail-
ie institution is prosperous and highly useful.
umber of students is seldom less than one hun-
ud fifty; *it funds* consisting of new lands are
ing in value; its library and apparatus are tol-
complete; its situation is pleasant and advan-

tageous. It takes its name from a principal be
tor, the Earl of Dartmouth.

Of the Government of New-Hampshire. Th
stitution lodges the power of making laws in a
ral Court, consisting of a senate and a house o
resentatives, the concurrence of which is necessar
law. The senate consists of thirteen persons, c
in certain districts by the freemen or electors.
qualify a man for a senator he must be possessed
freehold of the value of six hundred and sixty seve
lars, he must be thirty years of age, an inhabit
the district for which he is chosen, and must hav
an inhabitant of the state for seven years preced

Of the Representatives. Every town containin
hundred and fifty rateable males, of twenty one
of age, may send a deputy to the general court.
hundred additional rateable males entitle a town
additional representative. A representative must
estate in the district to the value of three hundre
thirty four dollars, one half of which must be fre
He must have been two years an inhabitant o
state, and when chosen, must be an inhabitant o
town or district for which he is elected.

Of the Electors. All the male inhabitants i
state of twenty-one years old and upwards, exce
paupers and persons excused from paying taxes at
own request, have a right to vote for senators and
resentatives. If the electors do not give a major
votes to any one person for senator, the two hous
the legislature, by joint ballot, elect one of th
who have the greatest number of votes.

Of the Executive Power. The supreme exec
power is vested in a governor, chosen annuall
March by the electors; but if no person has a m
ity of votes, the two houses elect one of the two,
have the highest number. To be a qualified cand
for governor, a man must have been an inhab
of the state seven years; he must be thirty yea
age, and possess an estate of the value of sixteen
dred and sixty-seven dollars, one half of which
be freehold.

Of the Council. To assist and advise the governor in his office, a council is instituted, consisting of five members, one in each county, annually chosen by the electors; and in case no choice is made by the people, the defect is supplied by the two houses from the two persons who have the highest number of votes. The qualifications of a councillor, are the same as for governor, except that a councillor must have real estate to the amount of a thousand dollars only.

Of the Powers of the Executive. All bills which pass the two houses must be presented to the governor; if he signs them, they become laws: if not he returns them, with his objections—if they are then passed by two thirds of the members of both houses, they become laws; otherwise, they do not. The governor and council appoint the judges of courts, sheriffs, registers of probate and the attorney general. The governor and council have a negative on each other.

Of the Powers of the Governor The governor is commander in chief of the army, navy and militia, and has power to pardon offences after conviction, except in cases of impeachment. He can prorogue the general court in its recess, for a time not exceeding seven months, and during the session, he can adjourn or prorogue it, at the request of the two houses He can also summon the general court on special occasions. In case of the death or absence of the governor, the president of the senate administers the government, till the next election shall supply the vacancy, there being no lieutenant governor.

Of the Militia. The militia of New-Hampshire consists of all able bodied men, from sixteen to forty years of age, with the exception of civil officers, clergymen, quakers, instructors and students in seminaries of learning, physicians and surgeons, ship masters, ferrymen, millers and a few others The regiments are twenty seven, and the effective men, about thirty thousand. The field officers are appointed by the governor and council, the captains and subalterns are nominated by the field officers, and appointed by the governor; the non-commissioned officers, by the captains and subalterns.

Of the Secretary and other Officers. The secretary of the state, treasurer, and commissary-general, are chosen by joint ballot of the senate and representatives. The county treasurers, and registers of deeds are chosen by the freemen of the respective counties. The judges of Courts hold their offices during good behaviour, except that they cannot remain in office after seventy years of age.

Of the Religious Denominations. The chief part of the inhabitants are congregationalists, episcopalians, presbyterians, baptists, and quakers; of which the first are the most numerous. In Portsmouth is also a society of universalists, and another of sandemanians. All persuasions and modes of worship are protected by law, without preference. The congregation elect and maintain their own ministers, and no person can be compelled to contribute to the support of those of another denomination.

Of Taxation. Taxes are laid upon polls and property, the several species of which are rated at a certain value fixed by law. In April annually, an invoice of the polls and rateable property of each town is taken by persons appointed for the purpose, and taxes are laid upon each town in poroportion to the amount of this invoice, and upon each man according to his part of it.

Of the Authority of Towns. Every town is a corporation, empowered to choose its officers, make regulations and lay taxes for the support of ministers, schools, bridges, highways and the poor. The general concerns of the town are under the direction of certain persons chosen for the purpose and called *Selectmen.*

Vermont.

Of the Situation of Vermont. The state of Vermont lies on the west side of the Connecticut, between forty-two degrees, forty-four minutes, and forty-five degrees of north latitude: and between seventy-one degrees, thirty-two minutes, and seventy-three degrees, twenty-five minutes, of west longitude.

Of the Bounds The east limit of Vermont is the western side of the Connecticut—the south boundary is

the north line of Massachusetts—the west line divides Pownal, Bennington and some other towns from New-York; then runs down Poultney river to East Bay, then along the middle of that bay, and lake Champlain to Canada, which begins in the forty-fifth degree of latitude—and that degree constitutes the north boundary.

Of the Extent. The length of Vermont from north to south, is one hundred and fifty-seven miles; the breadth on the south, is forty-one miles, and on the north, ninety miles, the mean or average breadth being about sixty-five miles. The contents of the state are nearly ten thousand two hundred and thirty-seven square-miles; or six millions and a half of acres. It is probable that water covers about one hundred and sixty thousand acres.

Of the natural Division of the State. The state of Vermont is divided by a range of mountains running nearly north and south, called from their appearance, *green* mountains, from which the state takes its name. The base of these elevations is about fifteen miles in breadth; and they are intersected, in many places with valleys.

Of the Rivers in the Western part of the State. The principal streams in Vermont, are Onion River, or Winoosky, which runs north-westerly seventy-five miles, and after washing a fertile country, enters the lake near Burlington.—Otter Creek, which waters the western district of the state for ninety miles, and falls into the lake at Ferrisburg—the Lamoil, a fine smooth stream of seventy-five miles in length, which falls into the lake five miles north of Onion River, the Missisko, of the same size, which winds across the north line of the state, and falls into the lake in Highgate.

Of the Rivers in the Eastern part of the State. West river rises near the head of Otter Creek in Bromley, and running south-east about thirty-seven miles, enters the Connecticut at Brattleborough. White river, after a course of fifty miles, falls into the Connecticut at Hartford.—Posoomsuck, rises in a pond in Westmore, and after a course of forty-five miles, enters the Connecticut in Barnet. The Connecticut which washes the

whole eastern side of Vermont, is one of the finest rivers in the eastern states.

Of the Lakes. The lake Champlain washes a large part of the western side of Vermont, furnishing navigable water into Canada. Memfremagog, on the north line of Vermont is about forty miles in length and two or three in breadth. It is chiefly within the limits of Canada and communicates with the St. Lawrence by the river St. Francis.

Of the Counties. Vermont is divided into eleven counties—On the west, Bennington, Rutland, Addison, Chittenden. On the north, Franklin and Orleans; and on the Connecticut, Windham, Windsor, Orange, Caledonia, and Essex. The state is further divided into townships, of which there are two hundred and fifty.

Of the Population. In the year 1771, the inhabitants of Vermont amounted to about seven thousand. In 1792 a census was taken and the number exceeded eighty-five thousand. In the year 1800, the number had increased to one hundred and fifty-four thousand. The people are mostly emigrants from the other New-England States or their descendants; the largest portion of them from Connecticut.

Of the Chief Towns. Bennington, a shire town of the county, on the south-western part of the state, and settled in 1764, is the oldest town. It is finely situated upon elevated ground, contains many handsome private buildings, a church, state-house, and jail, and in 1800, two thousand two hundred and fifty inhabitants. It is about forty miles north-east of Albany, and celebrated for a victory over the British troops in August 1777.

Of Manchester. Manchester, a shire town also in Bennington county, is situated pleasantly on elevated ground, twenty-two miles north of Bennington. It contains a number of handsome buildings, and in 1800, fourteen hundred inhabitants.

Of Rutland. Rutland, the shire town of Rutland county, and one of the seats of government, lies on Otter Creek, fifty-seven miles north of Bennington. It contains a church, a state-house, and in 1800, two thousand one hundred and thirty inhabitants.

Of Windsor. Windsor, the shire town of Windsor county, and one of the seats of the government, is one of the most considerable towns in the state. It lies on the Connecticut, about one hundred and forty miles north of Hartford in Connecticut. It contains many elegant houses, and in 1800, two thousand and two hundred inhabitants. Over the Connecticut at this place, is a handsome bridge, connecting the town with Cornish.

Of other considerable Towns. There are many handsome and thriving towns in this state, as Westminster, Newfane, Brattleborough, Newbury, Woodstock, Middlebury, Burlington, Vergennes and others. Middlebury and Vergennes on Otter Creek, are furnished by the falls, with excellent mill-seats—as is Burlington by falls on Onion River. Burlington is situated on a beautiful bay of Lake Champlain, which forms a crescent at the foot of the town, and the town has a fine view of the lake.

Of the Employments of the People. The principal occupation of the inhabitants is agricultnre. The lands in the state are in general very rich, and covered with forests of heavy wood. In all new settlements, the first object is to clear the land of wood, which is done by girdling, or falling the trees, and burning them with the leaves and dry branches. No sooner is the land in Vermont cleared, than it produces great crops of wheat, maiz, flax, oats, and other useful articles.

Of the Trade of Vermont. The course of trade follows the course of the rivers and the lake. On the east side of the mountains, goods are exported and imported chiefly by means of the Connecticut; and of course, the connections in business are with Hartford and New-York. The north-eastern parts, however, communicate more easily with Boston, Portsmouth, Kennebeck or some eastern port. On the west of the mountains the trade is with Troy, Albany, or other towns on the Hudson, and by that river with New-York; or to the north with Canada by means of lake Champlain and its outlet.

Of the Exports. The chief articles exported are pot and pearl ashes, wheat and other grain, bar iron, nails, beef, pork, cattle, horses, lumber and peltry; with some flax and maple sugar. As all the commodities exported from Vermont are transported through other states, except what pass to Canada, the amount of their value cannot be known, being included in the returns of exports from the ports where the articles are shipped. Thus a large part of the exports from New-York is the produce of Connecticut, New-Jersey and Vermont.

Of the Manufactures. The manufactures of Vermont are chiefly of the domestic kind, furnishing the inhabitants with coarse woollens and linens for the greater part of their necessary clothing. The sheep in Vermont are good, and flax is raised to great advantage. Iron is found to be abundant in the state, and large quantities are manufactured into nails. Many furnaces and forges are established in the western counties. The burning of wood in clearing new lands, supplies vast quantities of ashes, for the manufacture of pot and pearl ashes. Maple sugar is made in large quantities.

Of the state of Learning. Learning receives from the people of Vermont all the encouragement that can be expected from an agricultural people in a new settlement. Schools for common education are planted in every part of the state; and two colleges are established, one at Middlebury, the other at Burlington, in which are taught classical learning, and the higher branches of mathematics, philosophy, and other sciences.

Of the state of Religion. In the grants of townships by the legislature of Vermont, two rights of land have been reserved for the support of the clergy—one for a perpetual parsonage—another for the first settled minister in the town, of whatever denomination. In many of the oldest towns, there are settled ministers; in others, occasional preaching by delegates from societies of the clergy in the other states. The inhabitants are chiefly of the congregational persuasion, or *baptists*. but perfect freedom in religion is recognized.

by the constitution; and in this, as in other states, are found people of almost every denomination.

Of the Government of Vermont. The constitution of Vermont, originally formed in 1778, revised in 1786, and again in 1792, lodges the legislative power, in a house of Representatives, consisting of a deputy from each town chosen annually on the first Tuesday of September, and stiled, the *General Assembly.* The annual meeting of the legislature is on the second Thursday of October.

Of the Executive Power. The power of administering the laws is vested in a governor, or in his absence, a lieutenant governor, and a council of twelve men, chosen annually by the freemen; or if no person has a majority of votes, the governor is chosen by the council and general assembly. No property is necessary to qualify a man for any legislative or executive office.

Of the Freemen. Every man of full age, and of quiet behavior, after a year's residence in the state is entitled to be a freeman, and to vote for public officers. But two years residence is requisite to qualify a man for the office of governor, lieutenant governor, treasurer, counsellor or representatitive.

Of the mode of enacting Laws. All bills which originate in the assembly, are to be laid before the governor and council, and if approved become laws—but if the governor and council propose amendments, as they may, and the amendments are not agreed to by the assembly, the governor and council may suspend the passing of the bills, until the next session. If a bill is not returned in five days it becomes a law.

Of Appointments and Courts. Judges of the several courts, sheriffs, justices of the peace, and general officers, are appointed by the general assembly, in conjunction with the governor and council; but officers are commissioned by the governor. The supreme court consists of three judges, and is held in each county. Each county has also a court, consisting of three judges. Justices of the peace have power to try civil actions, where the demand does not exceed thirteen dol-

lars and a third—and criminal actions, where the fine or forfeiture does not exceed six dollars and two thirds. They can also punish with stripes not exceeding ten.

Of Taxation and Expenses. The property of the inhabitants is valued, agreeable to certain rules established by law; and on that property is appointed every public tax. The expences of government in Vermont amount to about ten thousand dollars a year; and the state is not incumbered with debt.

Of the Militia. The military force of Vermont consists of every able bodied man from sixteen years old to forty five; excepting persons exempted on account of their employments In 1792, there were 20 regiments of infantry, divided into four divisions, eight brigades, fifteen companies of cavalry, and six of artillery, composing a body of eighteen thousand and five hundred men.

Maine in Massachusetts.

Of the Divisions of Massachusetts. The state of Massachusetts is separated into two divisions, by means of New-Hampshire. That part which lies north and east of New-Hampshire is called the district of Maine, and forms the north-eastern extremity of the United States.

Of the Situation and Bounds of Maine. Maine lies between the forty-third and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and between the sixty-fifth and seventy-first degrees of west longitude. On the west, Maine has for a boundary, the Pascataway and New-Hampshire; on the north, Canada; on the east, the river Scoodue and New-Brunswick; and on the south, the Atlantic.

Of the Extent. The length of Maine on the sea coast is two hundred and forty miles; and its breadth, on an average, is one hundred and thirty. This extent of surface gives thirty-one thousand and two hundred *square* miles, and almost twenty millions of acres. *What* portion is covered with water is not yet known.

Of the face of the Country. Maine is generally hilly,

but not mountainous. The land near the sea coast is stony and barren; but the interior land produces good crops of wheat, rye, barley, oats, maiz, hemp, flax and esculent roots. On the west is a mountain called Agamenticus, within a few miles of the sea; a useful landmark for seamen. On the north a range of mountains divides this district from Canada.

Of the Rivers and Lakes. Maine is well watered with large and small streams, the chief of which are Saco, Kennebec, Penobscot, Androscoggin, and Scooduc; all which furnish navigable and boatable water into the interior of the country. The chief lakes are Moosehead, Sebacook or Sebago, Scooduc and Umbagog.

Of the Bays and Islands. No part of the American coast is more indented with bays and inlets, than the coast of Maine. The principal of these are Casco, Pemaquid, Penobscot, Passamaquoddy, and Machias. Numerous islands are scattered along the coast, at a small distance from the land, protecting the harbours from the violence of the waves, and rendering navigation safe.

Of the Counties, Towns and Population. The counties in Maine are six—on the west adjoining to Pascataway, lies York—next to which are Cumberland and Kennebec—then Lincoln—east of which is Hancock, and last of all Washington. These are divided into two hundred and twenty townships. The inhabitants of the district in 1750, were less than ten thousand—in 1790, they were ninety-six thousand; and in 1800, almost one hundred and fifty-two thousand.

Of the Chief Towns. York, a considerable town, nine miles from Portsmouth, is situated on a river of the same name, has a good harbor, and contained by the census of the year 1800, two thousand eight hundred inhabitants. Portland, on Casco Bay, fifty-five miles from Portsmouth, was built on the ruins of Falmouth, which was burnt by the British in 1775. It is a place of considerable trade, has a bank, and contained in 1800, three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. There are many other considerable towns, as Wells, Pownalborough, Biddeford, Wiscasset, and others.

Of the Trade. The principal article of export is lumber. Vast quantities of pine boards, shingles, joists, masts, spars, and the like, are transported to the neighboring states, and to Europe and the West-Indies. Pine, hemlock, spruce, beech and maple abound in the country; and from that district Boston is chiefly supplied with wood. Fish also is a considerable article of export.

Of the Agriculture. The first settlements in Maine were on the rivers and bays, along the sea shore, where the land is barren; and the inhabitants, finding a trade in lumber the most profitable business, neglected the cultivation of the earth, and exchanged their lumber for grain, which they imported from the middle and southern states. But the lumber trade being suspended by the revolutionary war, the inhabitants betook themselves to agriculture, and pushing their settlements to the interior of the district, found the land capable of supplying them with provisions.

Of Manufactures and fisheries. The manufactures are confined mostly to a few coarse cloths. The fisheries are prosecuted with ease and success. The abundance of cod, shad and salmon, in the bays and rivers, with the nearness of that district to the grand bank, render the fisheries a considerable and profitable business.

Of the State of Learning and Religion. The laws of Massachusetts direct that a school shall be kept in each town, and lands are retained, as public lots, for the support of schools and the gospel ministry. These beneficial institutions are enjoyed in the old settlements; but a great part of the district, being lately settled, is not well supplied with schools.

Massachusetts.

Of the Situation of Massachusetts. That part of Massachusetts which lies south of New-Hampshire, extends from the latitude of forty-one degrees thirteen minutes, to forty-three degrees fifty-two minutes north; *and from* seventy to seventy-three degrees thirty-eight *minutes,* west longitude.

Of its Name and Bounds. Massachusetts is the name given to the bay between Cape Cod and Cape Ann, by the Indian natives, a tribe of whom was called by the same name. The state has the Atlantic ocean on the east, New-Hampshire and Vermont on the north, New-York on the west, and Connecticut, Rhode-Island, and the sea on the south.

Of the Extent. The general length of the state, east and west, from the Atlantic to the New-York line, is about one hundred and twenty miles; but from the eastern point of Cape Cod, it is one hundred and ninety miles. The general breadth from north to south, is fifty miles; but at the east end of the state, about double that distance. This part of the state contains about five millions of acres.

Of the Counties, Towns, and Population. Massachusetts, exclusive of Maine, contains twelve counties, which are divided into two hundred and seventy-nine townships, of a convenient extent. The inhabitants in 1790, amounted nearly to three hundred and eighty thousand—in 1800, the number had increased to four hundred and twenty-five thousand—and the whole number of the state, including Maine, to five hundred and seventy-five thousand.

Chief Towns. Boston. The metropolis of Massachusetts is Boston, so called after the town of the same name in England. It is situated on a peninsula, which was called by the Indians Shawmut, which is a mile and three quarters in length, and from one quarter of a mile to a mile in breadth. The neck, connecting it with the land in Roxbury, is a mile in length.

Of the Houses and Inhabitants. The houses in Boston amount to two thousand and five hundred. They are chiefly of wood, but many of them of brick, and generally three stories high. In the south and west part of the town, many of them have neat and elegant gardens attached to them. The inhabitants in 1791, were eighteen thousand—in 1800, they were nearly twenty-five thousand.

Of the Streets. There are in Boston, ninety-seven streets, thirty-six lanes, twenty-six alleys, and a few

courts and squares The streets are mostly narrow or winding; a few of them are broad and strait. They are paved with beach stone, which are large and subject to be forced out of their places by the wheels of loaded carts; for which reason, the pavements are usually broken and uneven.

Of the State-House. The state-house on Beacon Hill is a very large and elegant building, finished with great taste. The dome is one hundred feet in diameter; it serves as a land-mark to mariners, and on the top is a very extensive, and the richest prospect imaginable. The harbor and its islands, the town of Boston, and especially the neighboring towns, and villages, spread along the shore around the bay and rivers, in the form of an amphitheatre, adorned with spires, churches, colleges and private dwellings, with the verdure of luxuriant farms and gardens, present an animating view of the industry, ease and affluence of the inhabitants.

Of the Faneil Hall. On market square stands Faneil Hall, built by a gentleman of that name This is a large building; the first floor is occupied as a flesh market, and the second floor contains a large hall for town meetings, and other public purposes, and a room for the selectmen.

Of the Alms-House, &c. The new alms-house stands near the water, in the north-west part of the town. It contains sixty rooms of forty feet square; is built of brick, and is a handsome building The old state-house in State-street is a large building; and is occupied with offices.

Of the Churches. The buildings for religious societies are nineteen—nine for congregationalists—three for episcopalians—two for baptists; and the others for societies of different persuasions Many of these churches are large and elegant buildings.

Of the Theatre and other Public Buildings. The theatre in Federal-street, is a large, handsome building of brick. The other public buildings are, a court-house, the province-house for the governor, a stone jail, a bridewell, and work-house, a powder-house, and concert-hall.

Of the Market. No part of America can boast of more excellent markets, than Boston. Flesh, fish, poultry, and vegetables are in the greatest abundance. But flour is imported from New-York, Philadelphia or Baltimore. Wood, the chief fuel, is brought from Penobscot, Kennebec, or other ports in Maine.

Of the Wharves and Keys There are eighty wharves and keys for loading and unloading ships. The long wharf is seventeen hundred and forty-three feet in length. On the north side, is a range of stores; and near the middle, a convenient key, with a well of fresh water for supplying the shipping.

Of the Bridges. Three magnificent toll bridges connect Boston with the towns on the main land Charles river bridge, built in 1785 and 6, is fifteen hundred feet in length and forty-three in breadth. It stands on seventy-five piers, and has a foot walk on each side. West-Boston bridge, erected in 1792 and 3, stands on one hundred and eighty piers, is three thousand four hundred and eighty feet in length, and forty in width. At the west end is a cross-way over a marsh, nearly as long as the bridge. Another bridge connects Boston with Dorchester point, now South Boston.

Of the Column. On the top of beacon hill in the rear of the state-house, stands a column of the doric order, built of brick and stone, and sixty feet high. It is incrusted with a cement; on the top is a figure of an eagle in wood supporting the American arms. On this column are inscribed the dates of some of the principal events of the revolution.

Of Franklin Place This is a range of handsome brick buildings in the form of a crescent. The open space in front is one hundred feet wide in the center, and fifty at the ends, with a grass plat in the middle, ornamented with trees and enclosed with rails.

Of the Mall and Common. The mall is a public walk, on the south-west side of the town in front of the state-house, fourteen hundred feet long, and bordered with rows of trees On the west this walk is open to the common, which is a pasture belonging to the town *The beauty of* the scenery there displayed, the sha

of the trees, and cool westerly breezes, render the walk very inviting in sultry weather.

Of the sufferings of Boston by Fire. No town has been more frequently damaged by fire than Boston Besides many fires of less note, the fire of 1679 destroyed one hundred and fifty buildings, and several vessels. In 1711, all the houses in Cornhill, with many in state-street were destroyed. The conflagration in 1760 was still more dreadful, consuming three hundred and fifty houses and stores. In 1787, one hundred buildings were laid in ruins, and in 1794, ninety-six. In the period of one hundred and fifteen years, the buildings burnt amounted almost to one thousand.

Of the Societies in Boston. There are in Boston nine societies instituted for charitable purposes—one for the promotion of the arts and sciences—one for historical researches—one for agriculture—one for propagating the gospel on the frontiers—besides a medical society, the cincinnati, fire clubs and some others

Of the Banks and Insurance Companies. In Boston, are four banks, the Massachusetts Bank, instituted in 1784; the Union Bank, incorporated in 1792; a branch of the Bank of the United States; and Boston Bank instituted in 1802. There are three incorporated companies for insuring property against losses at sea and by fire.

Of the Manufactures. The chief manufactures of the town are, those of loaf sugar, chocolate, candles, soap, rum, cordage, callico printing, stained paper, stone ware, hats, combs, books, twine, wool cards, furniture and utensils of various kinds. There were formerly thirty distilleries of rum in the town.

Of its settlement. Boston was first settled by the English in 1630. A large body of adventurers, under governor Winthrop, arrived at Salem in June 1630. Some of these people began a plantation at Watertown, others sat down at Charlestown; but not liking the situation they crossed the river, and began a town on the peninsula, in November of that year. Among these were governor Winthrop, deputy governor Dudley, and Mr. Wilson, their minister.

Of Salem. Thirteen miles north-easterly from Boston, lies Salem, the town of the second consideration in the state. It is situated on a point of land formed by a river on the north and a small bay on the south. It contained in 1800, nine thousand four hundred and sixty inhabitants, who are remarkable for their industry, and commercial enterprise, and among the richest in the state. This is a seat of the courts in the county of Essex; it has many elegant public and private buildings, and two banks. A bridge of fifteen hundred feet long, connects this town with Beverly. The Indian name of the place and river was Naumkeag, or Nahumkeak It was settled in 1628 by a party of adventurers under governor Endicott.

Of Newburyport. Newburyport, the third town in Massachusetts in commercial consequence, lies on the south side of the Merrimac, about three miles from the sea, and forty miles from Boston. This also is a seat of the courts in Essex county, and contained in 1800, six thousand inhabitants who are eminent for their commercial spirit. This town is distinguished for ship building, and a remarkable manufactory of nails. It has a bank, and many public schools. Adjoining to it is Newbury, a large town which is connected with Salisbury, by a very curious bridge over the Merrimac, of one thousand and thirty feet in length.

Of other considerable Towns. To the southward of Boston is Plymouth, forty miles distant, the shire town of the county of that name, and the oldest town in New-England. The inhabitants have placed in the centre of the town, the rock on which our ancestors first disembarked in 1620. About thirty-six miles nearly south of Boston is Taunton, a pleasant town the seat of the courts in Bristol county, on a small navigable river. Sixty miles south of Boston is New-Bedford, a thriving town, on Acushnet river and bay. This town has grown out of the profits of the whale fishery, and has a bank.

Of the Towns in the Western Parts. Worcester, the shire town of the large county of the same name, is a handsome town, forty-eight miles west of Boston, situa-

ted in a valley, and has a bank. On the Connecticut stand several handsome towns, among which are Springfield and Northampton, the seats of the courts in Hampshire county, ninety-seven miles west of Boston. In Berkshire county and contiguous to the state of New-York, are several neat and thriving towns, as Stockbridge, Pittsfield, Williamstown, and the shire towns Great Barrington and Lenox. In Northampton is a bank, and at Springfield and Greenfield there are bridges over the Connecticut.

Of the Rivers. The Connecticut runs through Massachusetts, in the county of Hampshire; watering great tracts of excellent meadow. The Merrimac runs through the north-east corner of the state, and forms a good harbor at Newburyport, though of difficult entrance. Charles river is boatable from Boston to Watertown, and furnishes good meadow and many mill seats, between that town and its source, which is a pond on the borders of Hopkinton. Below Charlestown it unites with the Mistic and forms a bay north of Boston. The Mistic is navigable to Medford, about four miles.

Of the Rivers in the Western Counties From some ponds in Worcester county, springs the Chickopy, a rapid stream which winds through the hilly country, in a westerly direction, and falls into the Connecticut in Springfield—Miller's river proceeding from ponds in Rindge and other towns, falls into the Connecticut between Northfield and Montague. Deerfield river, rises in Bennington county, in Vermont, and unites with the Connecticut between Deerfield and Greenfield. The Agawom rises in Berkshire county and falls into the Connecticut, in West-Springfield. The Housatonuc has its sources in Berkshire county, and waters Stockbridge, Barrington and Sheffield, then penetrating Connecticut, falls into the sound at Stratford.

Of the Mountains. In this part of Massachusetts there are no very lofty Mountains. The principal are on the ridge between the Connecticut and the Hudson, *in the* county of Berkshire which is a continuation of *the green* mountains in Vermont. The hills in Worcester and Hampshire counties are a continuation of

the mountains between the Connecticut and the Merrimac.

Of the Bays. The great bay of Massachusetts is included between Cape Ann on the north, and Cape Cod on the south. Within this, are many smaller bays, which furnish safe and navigable water for many well peopled towns. On the south side of this bay, Barnstable bay penetrates into the peninsula of Cape Cod, and approaches within five miles of Buzzard's Bay, on the south side of the Peninsula.

Of the Islands in the Bay. The bay of Massachusetts contains forty eight Islands, many of which are small barren rocks. Fifteen of them are of considerable size, and valuable. On one of them about two miles from Boston stands Fort Independence, formerly Castle William, a strong fort, near the ship channel, capable of annoying an enemy. In the castle is a prison for the confinement of convicts, condemned to labor.

Of Cape Cod. The peninsula, called Cape Cod, extends in the form of an elbow, from the main land at Sandwich, and is sixty-five miles in length. Its breadth varies from nine to three miles. It has Massachusetts bay on the north and Buzzard's bay on the south. A canal through the peninsula, in the town of Barnstable, has been contemplated. This peninsula is divided into eleven townships, and forms the county of Barnstable, containing nineteen thousand inhabitants.

Of the Elizabeth Islands. On the south-east of Buzzard's bay, is extended from north-east to south west a range of sixteen small islands called Elizabeth islands, the chief of which, are Naushan, Nashawena, Nenimisset, Pasquy, Pinequese, and Cattahunk. The latter island is on the south-western extremity, and is the spot on which Gosnold attempted a settlement in 1602. These islands are remarkably fertile; and these with Martha's Vinyard and the neighboring small isles, constitute Dukes county, containing three thousand one hundred inhabitants.

Of Martha's Vinyard. This island has been sometimes called Martin's Vinyard, from Martin Prine, one of its early visitors. The Indian name was Capa-

wock. It lies about seven miles south-east of Elizabeth isles; is twenty one miles long and six broad—the land fertile and well inhabited. The name Martha's Vinyard was originally given by Gosnold to a small island south of the present Martha's Vinyard, now called Neman's land, as it was uninhabited, the name was afterwards transferred to the larger island. Both of them abounded with vines.

Of Nantucket. A few leagues eastward of Martha's Vinyard, and south of Cape Cod, lies Nantucket, an island of fifteen miles in length, and from four to eleven in breadth. Its soil is mostly sand, but in some parts rich loam. It is a county and contains five thousand six hundred inhabitants. The neighboring sea abounds with valuable fish of various kinds, and the inhabitants have been remarkable for their enterprize in the whale fishery. On this island is a bank with a small capital.

Of the Manufactures. Besides domestic manufactures of coarse cloths, duck has been made in large quantities in Boston and Northampton. By means of very ingenious machinery, of American invention, wool cards are made for exportation in great numbers. The manufacture of women's shoes at Lynn is distinguished; as well as those of nails, nail rods, bar and sheet iron, spades and shovels at Taunton and Bridgewater. To these may be added the manufacture of pot and pearl ashes, spermaceti and tallow candles, chocolate, hooks and lines for the fisheries, paper hangings, snuff, paper and many other articles.

Of Canals for Lock Navigation. A canal is cut to carry boatable water round the rapids in the Connecticut at Montague, called Miller's fall. A like canal is in execution at Hadley, to carry boats by the rapids at that place. The Middlesex canal, connecting the waters of the Merrimac with Mistic river, is twenty-three miles in length, and a work of vast utility and expense.

Of the Fisheries. The greatest part of the fisheries of the United States is carried on by the citizens of Massachusetts. The whale fishery is carried on by the

people of Nantucket, New-Bedford and Cape Cod—the cod fishery is pursued by the people of Marblehead, Salem, Gloucester, and the inhabitants of Maine.

Of the Commerce The commerce of Massachusetts extends to all the world. Ship building is a material article of business, and no state owns so much tonnage as Massachusetts. The chief exports are dry fish, oil, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, flax-seed, furs, pickled fish of various sorts, beef, pork, grain, cheese, loaf sugar, candles, soap, cards, shoes, cordage and other naval stores. In the year 1800, the value of the exports rose above the sum of eleven millions of dollars.

Of the State of learning. In Massachusetts the principal institutions for science are the University of Cambridge, and the college at Williamstown. The university of Cambridge was founded in 1638—it was well endowed—is furnished with professors of the several sciences—a large library and apparatus—and contains usually from one hundred and forty to two hundred students. Williams college, in Williamstown, founded in 1793, is in a thriving state. Academies are established in various parts of the state, in which are taught the liberal sciences, as well as the languages. The laws of the state require a school to be kept in every town, having fifty house-holders, and a grammar school in every town having two hundred families. And although the laws are not rigidly obeyed, still most of the children in the state have access to a school.

Of the Constitution. By the constitution of Massachusetts, the legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, denominated the *General Court,* whose annual session is held at Boston, on the last Wednesday in May.

Of the Senate. The senate consists of forty persons, chosen annually in districts formed by the legislature. In case a sufficient number of persons have not a majority of votes, the election is made by the two houses of the general court. In the same manner are vacancies *supplied.* The qualifications of a senator are, a *freehold estate* of the value of one thousand dollars;

or personal estate to the value of two thousand dollars—five years inhabitancy in the state, and inhabitancy in the district at the time of his election.

Of the House of Representatives Each town in the state, containing one hundred and fifty rateable polls, elects one representative, and for every two hundred and twenty-five additional polls, an additional representative. The election is annually in May, and for one year. The qualifications of a representative are, one year's inhabitancy in the town, and a freehold of the value of three hundred and thirty-three dollars, and one third, or any rateable estate to double that amount

Of the Executive. The power of executing the laws, is lodged in a governor, who is chosen annually on the first Monday in April. His qualifications are seven years inhabitancy in the state, a freehold of the value of three thousand, three hundred, thirty-three dollars and a third, and profession of the christian religion. If no person has a majority of votes, the house of representatives by ballot elect two out of the four persons having the most votes, and one of the two is by ballot elected by the senate to be governor.

Of the Lieutenant Governor. A lieutenant governor is elected on the same day as the governor, and his qualifications must be the same. In case no choice is made by the citizens, the election is made by the two houses, as in case of the governor. The lieutenant governor supplies the place of governor when vacant by death, or absence, and is a member of the council.

Of the Council. To advise the governor in the executive part of government, a council is instituted, consisting of nine persons, besides the lieutenant governor. These are chosen annually by the joint ballot of both houses of the general court, from among the persons returned for councillors and senators, or in case the number cannot be completed from among them, the election is made from the people at large; but not more than *two* can be chosen from one district.

Of the Officers of Government and Judiciary. The secretary, treasurer, and notaries public, are chosen

by joint ballot of the two houses. The judges of courts, justices of the peace, attorney-general, sheriffs, coroners, and registers of probate are nominated by the governor and appointed by and with the advice and consent of the council. Judicial officers hold their places during good behavior, except justices of the peace, who remain in office seven years only under one commission, but may be re-appointed.

Of the Militia. The militia of the state consists of all able bodied men between sixteen and forty years of age, besides the alarm list, composed of men between forty and sixty. These are organized into ten divisions, twenty-two brigades, and eighty three regiments; besides forty-eight troops of horse and thirty-six companies of artillery—composing a body of about sixty thousand men.

Of Military Officers. Captains and subalterns are chosen by the soldiers of the company—regimental field officers are chosen by the captains and subalterns of the regiment—brigadiers, by the field officers of the brigade—major-generals are appointed by the general court, and commissioned by the governor.

Of the Religion of the State. The congregationalists are the most numerous denomination of christians; but there are many churches of other persuasions. All denominations are protected by law, and the establishment of any one in particular is forbid by the constitution; but it is made the duty of the legislature, to require the people to make provision for the institution of public worship.

Rhode-Island.

Of the Situation of Rhode-Island. The state of Rhode-Island is situated in the forty-second degree of latitude, and the seventy-first degree of west longitude. It is enclosed between Massachusetts on the east and north, and Connecticut on the west, with the Atlantic on the south.

Of its Extent. This state is about forty-five miles in length and thirty in breadth, on an average; containing about thirteen hundred and fifty square miles.

This area contains eight hundred and sixty-four thousand acres; but a large portion of it is covered with water.

Of the Face of the State. Rhode-Island contains no mountains; but the northern and western parts are hilly and stony. The state is penetrated by the river or bay, called Narraganset, which is thirty miles in length, embosoming a number of islands, and extending safe navigation for large ships to Providence.

Of the Rivers In addition to the Narraganset, this state enjoys the benefit of the Patucket, which furnishes an excellent seat for mills, four miles north-east of Providence, and falls into the Narraganset a little below the town. The river which enters the Narraganset at Providence, is called Providence river, and is formed by several small branches. A more considerable river called Pawtuxet, formed by several streams in the western part of the state, unites with the Narraganset, about four miles below Providence.

Of the Islands. On the east side of the Narraganset lies Rhode-Island, which gives name to the state. It extends about fourteen miles in length from south-west to north-east, and is three miles in breadth. West of this, lies Connecticut, a narrow Island of seven miles in length To the north lies Prudence, of less magnitude. These are the largest islands, and they are all fertile. To the south-west of these and in the open sea, is Block-Island, about ten miles long and four broad—distant from Newport twenty-one miles.

Of the Climate and Soil. Rhode-Island has a climate as temperate and healthful, as any part of New-England; although the sea coast is, in the spring, subject to fogs. The north-western towns are stony and barren, but the islands, and the towns bordering on the bay and the sea, are unusually fertile, producing all the roots, fruits and grain, common to the climate.

Of the Counties and Towns. This state is divided into five counties—Newport on the south, Providence on the north, Washington and Kent on the west, and Bristol in the center, on the east of the bay. Tese are subdivided into thirty townships of a convenient size.

he Population. The number of inhabitants in was a little short of eighteen thousand—of which thousand three hundred were whites. In 1785 mounted to almost fifty-two thousand. In 1790, mber was nearly sixty-nine thousand. In 1800, nine thousand one hundred and twenty.

ef Towns Providence, at the head of navigation, principal seat of commerce, and the shire town of unty of that name. It contained in 1790 six thou- nd four hundred inhabitants—and in 1800, seven nd, six hundred. It stands on both sides of Prov- river, connected by a bridge of one hundred and eet in length. The principal part of the town, and rst settled, stands on the declivity of a steep hill, the west. In this town are two banks and two nce companies.

he Public Buildings. The baptist church is a edifice, eighty feet square, with a steeple of unu- legance. The new congregational church is re- bly elegant The court-house and the college ndsome These with several other public build- nd a number of most elegant private mansions, ng on the hill, are exhibited to uncommon ad- ge, to a spectator on the west side of the river.

Newport. On the west end of Rhode-Island stands ort, on a gentle declivity facing the west It ned in 1800 six thousand seven hundred and forty tants. The court-house and the churches, with a r of handsome private dwellings, spread along vation of the ground, are seen to great advantage he harbor. The main street in the town is a l length and strait but narrow The houses are of wood. In this town is a bank and insurance ny.

he Manufactures. The people of this state make proportion of coarse cloths for their own con- on, and some linens for exportation. Great ties of stone-lime are made in Providence county portation. Some progress has been made in the *ufacture of cottons.* Still more valuable are the man- *es of bar and sheet iron,* nail-rods, nails, hard

ware, anchors, cannon, shot, and bells. The
at Scituate is distinguished for the fabrication
articles.

Of the Dairies. Block-Island, the towns o
lantic shore and some other parts, are celebrat
quantities and excellence of the cheese made a
ted. The islands furnish rich pasture for
which great numbers are raised; and for cattl
are numerous and large.

Of the Exports. The principal articles
are, beef, pork, horses, cattle, lumber, flax-
cheese, butter, lime, barley, spirits, with India
various kinds The amount of exports in
one million, three hundred and twenty three
dollars.

Of the Trade. Before the revolution, New
ried on a great trade to Africa; but this was
ed by the revolutionary war, and has been p
by the laws of the United States The tra
state is principally with the East and West
but is not limited to any foreign country. T
haunts of Providence carry on a great trade
East-Indies.

Of the State of Learning. There is a c
Providence, founded by the baptists, containin
eight rooms for students, and eight rooms for
ses. It has a library of near three thousand vo
and an apparatus for experiments in philoso
is furnished with a President and suitable in
for the students, who are usually about sixty
ber. In the large towns, and in some others, t
private schools for teaching the common
learning.

Of the Constitution. By the charter grante
colony of Rhode-Island, in 1663, which has
cognized by the state as the basis of its gov
the powers of legislation are lodged in the Ge
sembly, consisting of two branches, the house o
ants in which the governor presides, with a sin
and a house of representatives.

Of the Assistants. The assistants are ten in number, and form the upper house or council. They are chosen yearly by the freemen. The qualification of freemen, is possession of a freehold of the value of one hundred, and thirty-three dollars and a third, or of an annual rent of the value of six dollars and two thirds.

Of the Representatives. The representatives are seventy in number, and chosen by the freemen half yearly. The regular sessions of the General Assembly, are on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October. The assistants and representatives must be freemen.

Of the Executive. The chief executive power is lodged in a governor, or, in his absence, a deputy governor. These officers are chosen by the freemen annually, and no qualification is requisite, except that they are freemen, and inhabitants of some corporate town.

Of Courts and Officers. A court of common pleas sits twice a year in each county—the supreme court sits also twice a year in each county, with jurisdiction over the whole state. The judges and officers of the state are appointed annually by the General Assembly.

Of the state of Religion. By the constitution, all religious sects are equally protected, and none has any preeminence. Contracts with clergymen are not binding in law, unless in a society incorporated for the purpose. The principal denominations are baptists, congregationalists, episcopalians, and quakers.

Connecticut.

Of the name of Connecticut. Connecticut is the Indian name of the principal river that runs through the state, and signifies the *long river* The Dutch called this the *Fresh river*—and both names are very expressive of its remarkable characters.

Of the Situation of Connecticut. The state of Connecticut lies in the forty-second degree of latitude, and between seventy-one degrees, twenty minutes and seventy-three degrees, fifteen minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. On the south Connecticut is washed by the waters of the sound, between Long-Island and

the main—the western limit is Byram river, th
border of New-York—the northern boundary
southern line of Massachusetts, and the easter
Pawcatuc, and the western border of Rhode-Island

Of the Extent. The eastern line of Connecti
about forty-five miles in length; the southern, th
one hundred and ten—the western, about seven
—and the northern about seventy-two. It contai
about four thousand and six hundred square mile
two million, nine hundred and forty-four thous
acres.

Of the Face of the State. From the Connecti
which runs through the center of the state, the land r
ses on each side, into hills, but no very large mo
tains are within the limits of this state. The
elevated land is a range of hills or small mountains ru
ning north and south, through Litchfield county; bei
a continuation of the green mountains of Vermont.

Of the chief Rivers. In addition to the Connecti
and Housatonuc,* which have been described, the Th
Thegan river forms the Harbor of New-London, and
navigable fourteen miles to Norwich. This river
formed by a small stream, called Norwich river, and
by the Shetucket and Quinebaug, which unite three mile
above Norwich. The Shetucket rises in the northern
part of the state, in Union; and the Quinebaug, a
Brimfield in Massachusetts. These streams are sha
low, on a stoney bottom and not boatable.

Of the Tunxis or Windsor River. The Tunxis ha
its sources in Brandford in Berkshire county. It ru
ters Connecticut in Colebrook, and winding in a south
easterly direction, through New-Hartford to Farmin
ton, is there joined by the Poquabue, and turning north
ward, runs through Simsbury and enters the Connecti
cut in Windsor. It is not boatable, for any considera
ble distance.

**A bridge was erected, in 1803, over the Housatonuc
the main post road, between Milford and Stratford
is two hundred and thirty yards in length.*

Of the Quinipaug and Naugatuc. The Quinipaug is a small stream running southward and entering the harbor of New-Haven, one mile east of the state-house. It admits small craft to North-Haven Bridge eight miles, and forms an extensive salt marsh. The Naugatuc rises in Litchfield county and unites with the Housatonic in Derby.

Of the shore of Connecticut. The shore of this state is indented with numerous creeks and small bays, which form harbors for coasters, in every town upon the sound. East of the Connecticut, the land is rocky, but every where containing a fertile soil. It is no where steep, but rises gradually into gentle hills, which present a rich prospect from the sound.

Of the Ponds. In Salisbury, on the west border of the state, are two ponds which furnish mill seats. One of them near the centre of the town, is three miles in circumference, fed by springs, and furnishes a stream for the use of the celebrated furnace in that place. In Winchester are two ponds, one of them three miles in length, which furnishes a perpetual stream for a forge and several mills.

Of the Division of the State. Connecticut is divided into eight counties, and one hundred and thirteen townships. In the centre of the state are the counties of Hartford, New-Haven and Middlesex—on the west, Fairfield and Litchfield—on the east New-London, Windham and Tolland.

Of the Cities. In the year 1784, five cities were erected in Connecticut, comprehending the most populous and commercial parts of the towns of Hartford, New-Haven, New-London, Norwich, and Middletown. These corporations are vested with powers of government in local concerns. The mayor is chosen by the freemen, and holds his office during the pleasure of the General Court. The aldermen, common council, clerk and sheriffs are annually elected. The city courts have the powers of the county courts.

Of the Chief Towns. Hartford, on the west bank of the Connecticut, forty miles from the sea, is a commercial, as well as agricultural town, and a seat of the govern-

ment, where is held the annual election of civil
in May. The township is six miles in length,
in breadth. It contains three congregational ch
one episcopal; one baptist; and a small soc
quakers. In 1700, the inhabitants were four
and ninety—in 1800, five thousand three hun
fifty. It has a bank and an insurance company

Of the City of Hartford. The incorporated
Hartford is nearly a mile and a half in length,
mile in breadth. It is penetrated by a strean
Little or Mill river, which descends from the h
miles west of the city, and running for some mi
bottom of clay, is always discoloured. This str
worn a channel into the soft red stone, which f
substratum under the city; over which chann
bridge on the main-street. This stream furn
number of mill seats within the city and town.

Of the Soil of Hartford. The western part o
ford has a soil of red gravelly earth, very rich o
ductive. That part which is near the river is
with a strong clay or a rich black mould. The
principally in the meadows adjacent to the rive
clay when manured from the stable, yields e
grass, exceeding in quality and quantity, the pro
of any other soil. Six tons of the best hay hav
taken from an acre at two mowings in a seaso
five tons are not an unusual crop.

Of New-Haven. The township of New-Ha
on the sea shore, about seven miles from east t
and extends inland from two to five miles. On t
the limit of the town is the Quinipaug, which
the bay, and forms the channel of the harbor.
Haven is a seat of government, and of Yale C
and a place of considerable commerce In 17
town contained nearly four thousand five hund
habitants; In 1800, five thousand one hundred a
ty; of which four thousand and fifty were wit
city. It contains three congregational church
one episcopal.

Of the City of New-Haven. The city of New
stands at the head of a bay which forms a har

miles in length, and more than one mile in breadth. It extends from the Quinipaug to West River, about two miles, and from the entrance of the harbor to the north line of the township more than five miles. It harbor is safe and spacious; but the channel is narrow, and not deep. At the end of the wharf, which is two thousand, four hundred feet in length, the water is about seven feet deep in common tides; and the channel at the distance of one fourth of a mile from the wharf, has no more than thirteen or fourteen feet, at high water. This city has a bank, a marine insurance company, and an association for mutual assurance against losses by fire.

Of the Plan and Public Buildings. The city of New-Haven is laid out in squares, on a plain; to the north-west and north-east of which are two steep cliffs, at the termination of two ridges of hills, which have a romantic appearance. In the centre of the city, is a public square of sixty rods extent. Through the centre runs a line of public buildings, including the state house, two churches and a school house, in front of which runs Temple-street, bordered with trees. To the west of this square, and overlooking it, are the edifices of Yale-College, consisting of three colleges, a chapel and a museum. The whole square, surrounded with handsome houses, and planted with trees, presents a delightful prospect.

Of New-London. New-London is situated on the west side of the river Pequot, about three miles from its entrance into the sound. The harbor is one of the best in the United States; it is safe, spacious, with deep water and an easy entrance. The city stands on high ground, and is healthful. It contains one episcopal and one congregational church. From this port is carried on the principal trade of the eastern part of the state. Its inhabitants in 1800, were five thousand one hundred and fifty; but the town has since been divided. In this city is a bank.

Of Norwich. Norwich is a pleasant situated town, at the head of navigation on the Pequot river, fourteen *miles north of New*-London. It contains three princi-

pal settlements—one at the landing place, called Chelsea, another one mile and a half north, which is the original and most central settlement—and a third, about the same distance northerly. These compact settlements are places of trade—the rest of the town consists of farmers. The town in 1800 contained three thousand four hundred and eighty inhabitants.

Of the Commercial parts of Norwich. Chelsea is situated on a steep hill, at the head of tide water. It consists of houses and stores clustered together on the declivity, in an irregular manner, and exhibiting a romantic appearance. The central settlement, or town, lies partly around a handsome green, on which is the court house, and partly along the foot of a hill in a circular form, around a meadow; the other settlement is on elevated ground. All parts of the city exhibit many handsome and some elegant buildings. In this city there is a bank and an insurance company.

Of Middletown. Middletown is situated on the west bank of the Connecticut, fifteen miles below Hartford, where the river forms an elbow, just above its passage through the highlands. The city is spread over a gentle declivity, which exhibits the streets and buildings to great advantage. When viewed from the distant hills, it appears like a vast amphitheatre, presenting a prospect as delightful as the situation is healthful. This town and Haddam are the seats of the courts in Middlesex county. The public buildings in Middletown are a court-house, a congregational and an episcopal church. The inhabitants in 1800 were five thousand. In this city is a bank and an insurance company.

Of other considerable Towns. Fairfield and Danbury, the shire towns of Fairfield county, are handsome towns, although burnt by the British troops during the war. Litchfield, the seat of the courts in Litchfield county, has its principal and a very handsome street, on an elevation, which renders it a peculiarly pleasant and healthful situation, for a summer's residence. On this street are the public buildings, a church and a court-house. Wethersfield the oldest town in the state, and Windsor, which was the next settled, are

considerable and well built towns. Windham, a shire town in the county of that name, and many other towns, are populous and well built.

Of the Soil. The soil of Connecticut, excepting some sandy plains of small extent, is rich and productive. The eastern and western parts are hilly and stony; but contain excellent pasturage.

Of the number of Inhabitants. Connecticut is the most populous state in the Union; all its lands having been located and settled for many years. In 1756, the inhabitants were one hundred and thirty thousand—in 1774, one hundred and ninety-eight thousand—in 1790, two hundred and thirty-eight thousand, and in 1800, two hundred and fifty-one thousand, exclusive of nine hundred and fifty slaves.

Of the Manufactures. The people in Connecticut are mostly farmers and artificers. The farmers make in their own families, coarse stockings, linen and woollen cloths; but not in quantities sufficient for their own use. Leather, shoes, saddles, nails and most of the utensils of farmers are manufactured among themselves. Cannon and pigs are cast at the furnace in Salisbury, a town which contains inexhaustible mines of iron ore. Anchors, bar iron, steel and nail rods are furnished, in large quantities, by the forges in Canaan, Colebrook, Winchester and other towns, and hollow ware, is made in Stafford and Salisbury. Powder and paper are made in considerable quantities. Large quantities of wheat mostly purchased in New-York, are floured for exportation at the mills in Stamford.

Of the Fisheries. The fisheries of Connecticut consist in the taking of salmon, shad and alewives, in the months of April and May. The quantities taken furnish a large portion of food for the inhabitants, near the rivers, especially along the Connecticut; and salmon is sent to the New-York market. Considerable quantities of shad and alewives are salted for foreign markets. The Connecticut abounds with sturgeon, but no use is made of them. Stonington prosecutes the cod fishery with advantage.

Of the Commerce. Until within a few years trade of Connecticut was confined almost solely t West-Indies; but lately voyages to the south-se seal skins and thence to China for a market, and a to the Mediterranean, have been prosecuted with and success. No state is better accommodated water carriage—almost one third of the towns, li tiguous to navigable and boatable water. The Atlantic shore of the state is washed by the soun protected by Long-Island which greatly facilitat coasting trade to New-York. The inland tra greatly augmented by the lock navigation on the necticut, by which means commodities are transp by water to Hartford from the interior of Vermon New-Hampshire.

Of the Exports The principal articles of expo beef, pork, cattle, horses, mules, and small live s lumber, especially hoops, staves and heading; m grain or in kiln-dried meal, rye, butter, cheese, c and potatoes; pot and pearl ashes, flax seed, fish; and candles. The value of the exports directly Connecticut amounted in 1800, to more than a m of dollars; but two thirds of the articles exporte sent to New-York, in payment for dry goods ther chased, and make a part of the exports from that

Of the state of Learning. Soon after the settl of Connecticut, the general court passed laws dir schools to be kept in every village, and providing to encourage them. Every town or village conta a certain number of families, was directed to ma a school and empowered to draw from the treas the state, a sum equal to one five hundredth p the amount of the property of the town, as a ed in the grand list By means of this prov common schools have been kept in all parts o state, and every person is taught to read, write keep accounts. By the sale of the western reser 1795, still more liberal and permanent funds were vided for the support of schools. In winter the *er children* are instructed by men; in summer, *children* attend the schools and are taught by w

al the instructors are selected from persons of
ilies and reputation.

le College. Yale College, so called, from a prin-
iefactor, was founded in the year 1700 at Kil-
h, but fixed at New-Haven, in 1716. It con-
ree colleges, each containing thirty-two rooms,
and museum—has a library of about two thou-
umes, and a philosophical apparatus. Its funds
e, and from thirty to sixty students are annu-
luated at the public commencement in Septem-
is under the direction of trustees, consisting of
lergymen and eight laymen. The vacancies
ie clerical members are supplied by the board
es—The lay members are the governor, lieu-
›vernor, and six senior members of the council
ite, or upper house.

adamies and Grammar Schools. By law a
· schol may be established in any town in the
a vote of the inhabitants in legal meeting; and
adamies are established and maintained by pri-
ds. In these are taught not only the pri-
inches of learning, but geography, grammar,
uages, and higher branches of mathematics.
·e also acadamies for young ladies, in which
ht, the additional branches of needle-work,
and embroidery.—Among the academies of the
itation are, one in Plainfield, and the Bacon
in Colchester, whose funds amount to about
e thousand dollars. The most distinguished
or young ladies are, union school in New-Ha-
one in Litchfield.

Government. By the charter of king Charles
d, which is the basis of the constitution of
cut, the legislative power is lodged in two
which are denominated the general court.
er house or council is composed of the gov-
utenant-governor, and twelve assistants, cho-
ally; the house of representatives consists of
from the several towns chosen twice a year.
the towns send two deputies. The general
twice a year—at Hartford, at the general

election on the second Thursday in May—and
Haven, on the second Thursday in October. T
houses have a negative on each other. The go
or in his absence, the lieutenant-governor presi
upper house, with a casting vote.

Of the Qualifications of Electors. The electors a
led *freemen*, whose qualifications are inhabitancy
age, possession of real estate to the value of sev
lars a year, or property in the grand list to the a
of one hundred and thirty-four dollars, and pu
behaviour. No other qualification is required to
a man to any office of honor or profit.

Of the Choice of Councillors. The mode of c
members of the council, or upper house, is pec
Connecticut. At the election of deputies in Sep
the freemen give their votes for twenty perso
these votes being counted at the session of the
bly in October, the persons having the most
stand in nomination; that is from the list of can
out of which twelve persons are to be selected
votes of the freemen, in April following, to be
sistants or councillors for the year ensuing. T
nual election, when the votes are counted and
cers of government enter on their duties, is on
cond Thursday of May. The representatives
gress are elected in a similar manner.

Of the Executive. In Connecticut a small
the executive duties of the government is vest
chief magistrate. The appointment of all jus
tices of the peace, and all military officers, is
the general court; and the persons appointed
missioned by the governor. Sheriffs are appo
the governor and council—the treasurer and s
are elected annually by the people. Notaries
are appointed by the governor.

Of the Powers vested in the Towns. All t
are corporations, authorised by law to chuse
officers, who execute the laws within the limi
towns. A town meeting is by law to be held
ly in December, at which are to be chosen
men, who are called selectmen, to superintend

concerns; also constables, collectors of taxes, surveyors of highways, grand jurymen, and other officers. These officers have the care of the poor, of roads and bridges, of ferries and other local concerns.

Of the Judiciary The judiciary power is lodged in the justices of the peace, who try causes, civil and criminal, where the debt or penalty does not exceed seven dollars, without appeal; in the county courts, which try small offences, and decide, without appeal, all demands under seventy dollars; and in the superior court, which has supreme jurisdiction in all causes, both in law and equity; but a writ of error lies from this court to the supreme court of errors, which consists of the governor and council, and is held in June at Hartford and New-Haven alternately. The state is divided into small districts, in which are established courts of probate for the trial of wills, and granting of administration All judges are annually appointed by the legislature.

Of the Militia. All the able bodied men in the state from the age of eighteen to forty-five, except officers of government, officers and students of college, clergymen, and some others, are enrolled and form the militia of the state. The militia is formed into thirty-five regiments, eight brigades, and four divisions. The officers are appointed by the general assembly, and commissioned by the governor; the captains and subalterns being first nominated by their several companies.

Of the Religion The most numerous denomination of Christians, is the congregationalists; next to which in numbers are the episcopalians. There are several societies of baptists and some methodists in the state—a few quakers and others of different persuasions. The state is divided into parishes or ecclesiastical societies, which are legal corporations, with power to chose their ministers, make contracts with them, and lay taxes for their maintenance All persons within the parish are bound by the vote of the *inhabitants in legal* meeting; but a person dissenting *from the worship* of any congregation, may lodge a

certificate of his dissent, and of his joini other church, and be exempt from taxes lai parish.

General Remarks. The five eastern sta very properly be denominated *New-England* most all the inhabitants are descendents of men. The first settlers, with a view to prec ferences in religion, made laws to prevent from settling among them, without the appro the men in authority. Hence the people of the have a distinct and uniform character and l Their language is nearly the same as that of at the time of the first emigrations, unadulter modern corruptions. Their laws, manners, a tutions are also very similar.

Of the Mode of Settlement. The settlers England divided the country into townships miles square, and convenient for small corp which were to regulate their own local af church and a school house, destined to be th ries of religion and improvement, were fixed centre of the township; which invited the firs to build their houses in a compact assemblag vicinity. Hence New-England was parcel townships, and soon overspread with towns— of settlement highly favourable to society, ci ners, and moral improvement. The emigran New-England pursue a similar mode of settl the western states.

New-York.

Of the Situation of the State of New-York state, which takes its name from the duke of Y ancient proprietor, lies on the west and south England, from forty degrees and a half to fi degrees of latitude, and between seventy-th eighty degrees of west longitude. The form state is very irregular, and Long-Island, Sta and, with Fisher's and Gardner's Islands, lie from the main body of the state.

Of the Bounds. From the city of New-York, on Manhattan island, to the north line of New-Jersey, about twenty miles, the Hudson is the western boundary of the state, which is only twenty miles in breadth. To the north of New-Jersey, the state of New-York spreads westward along the north line of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania to the breadth of three hundred miles. On the north, it is bounded by Canada—on the east, by Connecticut, Massachusetts and Vermont, and on the south by the ocean.

Of the Extent. The length of this state, from the south end of Staten-Island to the Canada line, is about three hundred and fifty miles—its greatest breadth from Massachusetts to lake Erie, is about the same as its length But this breadth of land does not extend a hundred miles, north and south, and as the southern part of the state is narrow it is probable that the area of the state may be bounded by sides of three hundred miles by two hundred—which will give for its surface, sixty thousand square miles, and thirty-eight millions four hundred thousand acres. This estimate does not include the waters of Ontario, a large part of which is within this state

Of the Mountains. A range of mountains runs across this state about sixty miles north of New-York, called the highlands. At the place where the Hudson penetrates this range, the river is compressed into a narrow deep channel between the mountains. For this reason, and the advantageous situation of the hills, commanding the river, this place was selected for a military post, and fortified, during the war. It is the key of the river and called West-point. On the west of the same river, one hundred and thirty miles from New-York is the Catskill mountain, one of the highest elevations in the northern states.

Of the Rivers In addition to the Hudson, which penetrates the state, with navigable water to Albany, and its western branch the Mohawk, which have been described, this state boasts of numerous smaller streams, which water all parts of it. On the east, is Hoosuck which has its sources in Lanesborough and Hancock in Massachusetts, and enters the Hudson

eight miles above Lansingburgh.—Battenkill siderable stream, furnishing numerous mill se ceeds from a spring at the foot of a mountain i ley in Vermont, and enters the Hudson, opposite toga. The head branch of Otter Creek has i on the same mountain, and descending it, ap within twelve rods of the source of Battenki runs northerly and enters Lake Champlain. S er is Black River, which enters the Ontario an gatchie, which discharges its waters into the L The Saranac and Sable rivers water the wester of Champlain, while the Genesee, the Sen head streams of the Susquehanna, the Delawar Ohio, with Buffalo, Cataragus, Tonewanta, a Creeks, water the western districts of this lar

Of the Divisions of the State. The state York is divided into thirty-three counties. south Long-Island contains three counties, Queen's, and Suffolk. Staten-Island compos mond county, and York-Island, the county York. On and near the Hudson are Wes Dutches, Rockland, Orange, Ulster, Green, Columbia, Rensellaer, Saratoga, and Washing the north and west, are Clinton, Essex, Mon Schoharie, Herkimer, Otsego, Onondago, Tioga, Stuben, Cayuga, Shenango, Delaware, see, St. Lawrence, Jefferson and Lewis. Th ships and cities amount to two hundred and ei

Of the Population. The state of New-York settled by the Dutch, and for more than a cent population was slow. In 1756, when the state settled nearly one hundred and fifty years, the of inhabitants was estimated at one hundred t only. After the conquest of Canada in 1760, th ern parts of the state began to be settled by e

to five hundred and eighty six thousand, of which twenty thousand and six hundred are slaves.

Of the Soil. The west end of Long-Island has a fertile soil; further east are extensive barren plains interspersed with fruitful lands. From New-York to Albany, the soil is generally dry and gravelly; and about the highlands, rocky. The western counties consist mostly of rich loam, clay or mold, and they are not mountainous nor stony. Above Albany are rich intervales or meadows along the banks of the Hudson.

Of the Productions. This state extending through five degrees of latitude, produces all the varieties of grain, fruits and roots which grow in similar climates. The southern part of the state being in the mild region of the United States, is furnished with fruits of the best kinds. The northern part near Canada, will not produce the peach and watermelon in perfection. Wheat is the staple commodity of the state.

Of the Manufactures. The people of this state, make a part of their clothing in their own houses, but by no means a sufficiency for their consumption. Iron, hollow ware, stoves, nails, glass, paper, snuff, tobacco, wool cards, pot and pearl ashes are manufactured in this state. The iron castings are principally from the air furnaces in and near the city of New-York or the highlands. In the city also are refined large quantities of sugar; beer and porter are furnished by the several breweries—beer being the common drink of the inhabitants.

Of the Chief Towns. The city of New-York is the metropolis of the state, and one of the principal towns in the United States. It is situated upon the point of Manhattan or York-Island, which is fifteen miles in length and one in breadth. It is washed by the Hudson on the west, and on the east by Harlem river, and the strait which connects the Hudson with the sound, dividing Long-Island from the main.

Of the Position of the City. New-York was begun on the south east side of the island; but has been extended to the Hudson, and now covers the whole breadth of the island. On both sides, the princip-

streets run nearly parallel with the rivers, and are crossed by others which run from river to river; but the streets are not all at right angles. The principal streets are tolerably wide and well paved, with foot walks of flat stone or brick. The water works of the Manhattan company raise water from wells, near the fresh water pond, by means of a steam engine, and distribute it by pipes, through the streets of the city.

Of Broad-way and the Park. Broad-way, a wide and well built street, begins at the government house, which stands on the ground formerly occupied by the fort, near the walk at the battery; and running northward on the highest part of the island, presents a strait avenue of nearly two miles in length. On one side of this street, in front of the court-house, prison and bridewell, and with the theatre and Chatham street on the south, is a triangular area, inclosed with trees. The battery, a gravelled walk along the point of the island, next to the water, and open to refreshing breezes from the bay, is the place of fashionable resort during the summer.

Of the Buildings. That part of the city which was built before the revolution, was not remarkable for the size and elegance of the houses. But a large part of the city has been built since the peace of 1783, with elegant houses and stores of three and four stories—the city has been greatly extended—the streets repaired—the public buildings enlarged, repaired or ornamented—and for many miles from the city, the island is adorned with handsome villas and summer-houses.

Of the Public Edifices. The city-hall, which was enlarged and repaired for the use of Congress in 1789, is a large pile without external elegance; but is distinguished for being the seat of the first Congress under the national constitution; and the place where the celebrated Washington was inaugurated first President of the United States. The government house, the court-house, the banks, tontine coffee-house, the hotel, *the theatre*, the alms-house, the hospital, the bridewell, *the jail*, several of the churches, and the state prison,

are large and expensive works—and evidences of the affluence and public spirit of the inhabitants.

Of the inhabitants of the City. The citizens of New-York are composed of the descendants of the original Dutch settlers, English, Scotch, Irish, and Germans. The number increased from eleven thousand in 1756, to twenty-two thousand in 1771. From that time to 1786, the revolution intervening, the number increased only to twenty three thousand. In 1790, the number was thirty-three thousand. In 1800, sixty thousand. But these numbers, include the people of the whole island. The religious denominations are episcopalians, Dutch calvinists, presbyterians, German lutherans, quakers, baptists, catholics, methodists, moravians, jews, and French protestants.

Of the Banks and Insurance companies. There are four Banks in the city of New-York. 1. The New-York bank, instituted in 1784, and incorporated in 1791. 2. A branch of the United States Bank. 3. The Manhattan bank, instituted and incorporated in 1799. 4. The Merchants bank instituted in 1803. There are four incorporated companies for insurance against losses at sea, and two associations incorporated for the purpose of mutual assurance against losses by fire.

Of charitable Societies. In this city are many societies formed for charitable purposes, which are as useful to the indigent as honorable to the founders. Such is that for the relief of distressed debtors, who are imprisoned and have not the means of support. The dispensary, for the relief of the sick—the lying-in hospital—the marine and mechanics societies, and many others.

Of the Government of the city. New-York is under the government of a mayor, recorder, aldermen and assistants, who compose the common council. The mayor and recorder are appointed by the council of appointment. The aldermen and assistants are chosen annually by the freemen—one in each of the nine wards of the city. The mayor and recorder hold courts for the trial of civil and criminal causes. The

common council make laws for the government
city, but they cannot lay a tax on the city, with
act of the legislature.

Of Albany. Albany is a large, thriving city
west bank of the Hudson, one hundred and si
miles north of New-York. It is the seat of
ment and the public offices—has two banks, t
ny bank and state bank, contains about ten thou
habitants, with many elegant buildings, and h
tive thriving commerce.

Of the commerce of New-York. The state
York is advantageously situated for trade, bei
trated by a fine navigable river, intersected wi
ble waters, and washed on the north and so
lakes, or the ocean. The city of New-York
mouth of the Hudson, and at the junction of t
with the sound, with a safe and capacious ha
ships of any size, possesses the most comman
ation for trade, and is the natural port of entr
port for New-York, Connecticut, and for a g
of New Jersey, Vermont and Canada. In col
when most of the harbors in the northern
closed with ice, the harbor of New-York, wh
dom obstructed, receives the shipping of oth
to enliven the trade of the country.

Of the Exports. The exports from New-
sist of every species of the produce of the Unit
and of all kinds of foreign commodities which
re-shipped for market. The staple comm
the state is wheat or flour; but from New-
exported the beef, pork, maiz, butter, chees
pearl ashes, and flax-seed, not only of that st
Connecticut, New-Jersey and Vermont. Th
of exports from that city in 1800, was four
ions of dollars—a greater amount than from
port. That city also imports dry goods for t
boring states.

Of the State of Learning. A college was i
the city of New-York, in 1754, and recei
charter from the king. After the revolu
legislature instituted a university consisting

ber of regents, whose powers extend to the superintendence of colleges, academies and schools throughout the state. They are authorised to found colleges and academies, confer degrees, visit all seminaries of learning, and make regulations for their government.

Of Columbia and Union Colleges. By the act of the legislature in 1787, founding the university of the state, the college in New-York received the name of *Columbia*, and all the privileges and powers, derived from its charter, were confirmed. It is under the government of twenty-four trustees, and has considerable funds. Its instructors are, a president and professors of the principal sciences. The building is of stone, three stories high, and containing forty eight apartments. The college is furnished with a chapel, a library, museum, and philosophical apparatus. Union college was founded at Schenectady in 1795, and is in a prosperous condition.

Of Academies and Schools. Several respectable academies are established in different parts of the state, in which are taught the learned languages, geography, grammar, and mathematics. Until since the revolution, common schools received no encouragement from the public treasury, or the laws. But in 1795, a law of the state appropriated a large sum of money for erecting school houses, and paying teachers, the beneficial effects of which are visible. Hitherto however the instruction of the laboring people in the first rudiments of learning, has not been general.

Of the State of Religion. The constitution of New-York gives universal indulgence to religious persuasions, without distinction or preference. The principal denominations, are the lutheran and calvinist churches, both Dutch and English, the congregational and presbyterian. Some of these churches in the large cities are well endowed and filled with able preachers, but many of the inhabitants of the interior of the state have no regular dispensation of divine ordinances.

Of the Constitution of Civil Government. The supreme legislative power is vested in two houses, call

the senate and assembly, which meet regularly uary. The executive authority is lodged in a or, and a council of appointment. As a check legislature, a council of revision is constitute governor, the chancellor and the judges of the court, who have power to examine bills whic passed the two houses, and if they see proper ject to their becoming laws, giving their reasons ting. After which two thirds of the votes of bo es are necessary to give such bills the force of

Of the Senate. The senate consists of free chosen in districts, by citizens who possess free tates of the value of two hundred and fifty free of debts charged upon them. The membe their seats for four years; the seats of one fou being vacated every year, and their places supp a new election.

Of the Assembly. The members of the a are chosen annually in April. The qualifica their electors are, six months residence in the legal age, a freehold of fifty dollars value, or re tenement of five dollars annual value, and pay taxes. A minister of the gospel cannot hold a or military office.

Of the Governor. The governor is chosen three years, by the citizens qualified to vote fo tors, and at the time and places of electing the sentatives in the assembly. The governor is com er in chief of the militia, and has power to gr prieves and pardons. The governor also, with vice and consent of a council, composed of a from each district, annually chosen by the ass appoints and commissions the judges, sheriffs, a er executive officers. The lieutenant governor sen in the same manner as the governor, and in sence, supplies his place. He is also president senate.

Of the Judiciary. The chancellor holds cou *equity.* The judges of the supreme and county *hold courts* of law. The supreme court sits *New-York* and Albany; but circuit courts, c

judge of the supreme court, are held in every
y in the state. The judges hold their offices du-
ood behavior, or till they are sixty years of age.
irt for the trial of impeachments must consist of
nate, the chancellor and the judges of the su-
court. The senate is the supreme court for the
tion of errors.

the Militia. The militia in the year 1802, was
osed of five divisions of infantry, twenty-five
les, ninety-three regiments and nearly seventy
and privates and subaltern officers—of eighteen
ed cavalry, and eight hundred artillery including
rs.

the State of Real Property. Before the revolu-
a large portion of the colony of New-York was
lled out into manors, which were in the hands of
families. Several of the proprietors, adhering
royal cause, during the war, lost their estates by
ture and confiscation. These estates were divi-
id sold. A few manors, belonging to the friends of
volution are retained by the families; but a law
state, altering the tenure of the lands, and de-
ng future entailments, is calculated to reduce the
rs, into small estates.

New-Jersey.

the Situation and Name. New-Jersey is situated
en thirty-nine and forty-one degrees, twenty-four
es, of north latitude; and in the seventy-fifth and
degrees of west longitude. The grant of this ter-
was first made by king Charles the second to
other James, then duke of York, who owned an
in the island of Jersey, and who therefore called
erritory *New-Jersey.*

the Bounds and Extent. New-Jersey is bounded
e east by the Atlantic and the Hudson: on the
and west by Delaware bay and river, and on the
by New-York. Its length north and south, is a-
ne hundred and sixty miles, and its breadth, fifty;
ehending about five millions of acres.

the Face of the State. New-Jersey contains no

great mountains. The southern part is a plain, and a great part of it is barren sand. The middle and northern parts consist of hills and plains, which are variegated with streams of water and fine tracts of fertile land. The rivers Hackinsac, Passaic, and Raritan, which rise in the hilly country on the north, water that part of the state, and form rich intervals. By means of these rivers and the Hudson and Delaware on the borders, the whole state lies within twenty-five miles of navigable and boatable water.

Of the Divisions of the State. The grant to the duke of York was very early divided and sold to different proprietors. The divisional line, run north and south, nearly through the middle of the territory, and gave rise to the denominations of east and west Jersey. The state is now divided into thirteen counties. On the east, Bergen, Essex, Middlesex and Monmouth; on the west and south, Sussex, Hunterdon, Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, Cumberland and Cape-May; and in the interior, Somerset and Morris. These counties are divided into townships.

Of the Population. In 1785, the state of New-Jersey contained one hundred and thirty-nine thousand whites, and ten thousand five hundred blacks.—In 1790, the number had increased to one hundred and eighty-four thousand whites, and eleven thousand four hundred slaves.—In 1800, to two hundred and eleven thousand inhabitants, of which twelve thousand were slaves.

Chief Towns. The principal towns are Trenton, Burlington, Bordentown, Elizabethtown, Amboy, Newark, Brunswick, Princeton, and Morristown—all which are of considerable size, well built, and pleasant. Trenton is the seat of government; and Princeton, the seat of Nassau Hall college, situated on high commanding ground, near the center of the state, though a small town, is a most healthful and delightful residence.

Of the Climate and Productions. New-Jersey is in the *middle* and temperate region of the United States; *the southern* part, extending a degree to the south

ward of New-York, has a milder climate. The northern part is hilly and more cold. From the middle of the state to Cape-May, the state contains much barren land; but it produces all kinds of grain, fruit and roots. The fruits are remarkably good, particularly the apple and the peach. The northern counties contain excellent pasturage, and beef, mutton, butter and cheese, in large quantities are sent to the New-York market. The pork and bacon of the western counties are in high repute, and so is the cider of the eastern.

Of the Manufactures. Few manufactures have made much progress in New-Jersey, except that of iron.—This is a considerable branch of business particularly in Morris county, which furnishes inexhaustible mines of ore, with abundance of wood and convenient streams of water. Two furnaces, two rolling and slitting mills, and about thirty forges, produce yearly fourteen hundred tons of bar and pig iron, besides hollow ware and other castings. It is estimated that twenty-five hundred tons are produced in the state Nails, leather, and some cottons are also made in New-Jersey.

Of the Commerce. New-Jersey being a tongue of land between the Hudson and Delaware, and having the two principal trading cities of the United States, in its neighborhood, has little foreign commerce although the bay and river at Amboy furnish an excellent harbor. The produce of the eastern part of the state is carried to New-York—that of the western to Philadelphia, and forms a considerable part of the amount of exports from those cities.

Of the State of Learning. The education of youth in New-Jersey depends on the voluntary contributions of individuals, and therefore is neglected by some classes of the people In the more populous towns and villages are academies and schools of high reputation. The college at Princeton, called Nassau Hall, is a seminary of distinguished reputation, and from thirty to forty students are annually graduated at the public commencement.

Of the Religious Denominations. The inhabitants of New-Jersey consist of the descendants of the Dutch

English, German, Scotch and Irish settlers. are of all denominations, and have equal liberty shipping in their own modes, without the interf of law, or any establishment. As a qualificati office however it is necessary that a person shou protestant.

Of the Constitution. The supreme legislative is lodged in a council and general assembly. Th cil consists of one member for each county, a assembly, of three deputies from each county. form separate houses, whose concurrence is n ry to the passing of a law. The qualifications of cillor are, one year's residence in the connty for he is chosen, and possession of real and person tate to the value of two thousand six hundred a ty-seven dollars. One half of this sum qualifies for a member of the assembly

Of the Electors All the inhabitants of New- are entitled to vote for rulers, if they have the ing qualifications—full age, one year's residence county where they claim to vote, and possess property in the same of the value of one hundr thirty-three dollars and a third. Under this co tion, females enjoy and exercise the privilege of —a singularity peculiar to the state.

Of the Executive. The council and assem their first meeting after the election in October, elect a person for governor, who presides in the cil with a casting vote, and in whom is vested t preme executive power. The council and as appoint the judges of courts, justices of the peac retary and treasurer; who are commissioned governor.

Of the Judges and other Officers. The Judges supreme court hold their offices for seven years es of the common pleas, justices of the peac secretary, for five years; the treasurer for one But all officers may be re-appointed. Sherif yearly chosen by the people, and may be re-elect *three* years in succession; they then remain in *for three* years.—Judges of the supreme and

, and sheriffs are precluded from a seat in the ature.

the Military. Captains and inferior officers are a by the military companies; superior officers are ated by the council and assembly.

Pennsylvania.

the Name and Situation. The name of Pennsyl- is composed of the name of the first proprietor, and a word formed from sylva, a *wood* or *forest.* tate lies between the middle of the fortieth and rty-second degrees of latitude, and the seventy- nd eightieth degrees of west longitude.

he Bounds. On the east Pennsylvania is bound- the Delaware, which separates it from New-Jer- on the south it adjoins to the states of Delaware, land and Virginia—on the west, it has a part of nia, and the state of Ohio—on the north it is bound- lake Erie and the state of New-York.

he Extent. The breadth of Pennsylvania, from to north, is about one hundred and fifty miles, s length, from east to west, two hundred and nine- ts surface contains forty-four thousand square and twenty-eight millions of acres.

he Mountains. This state is intersected with the idges of mountains which constitute the Allega- l its several branches or spurs. Their direction north-east to south-west, through Northampton, lin, Cumberland and other middle counties. These ains furnish the principal sources of the Ohio, ac, Susquehanna, Schuylkill and Delaware riv- ith several rivers of smaller note.

he Principal Rivers. The chief rivers are, the are on the east, the Susquehanna, which pene- the state, the Schuylkill, the Lehigh, a branch of laware; and on the west of the mountains, the ny, or head branch of the Ohio and Monongahe- l which have been before described. To these added *the Juniata*, the Connestoga, the Yohog- *Kiskamanitas*, Big Beaver Creek, and many

other considerable streams, which form the sources of the large rivers, and spread water over the state in all directions.

Of the Counties and Towns. The number of counties in the year 1802, was thirty-two, and the townships about five hundred and twenty, exclusive of the city and liberties of Philadelphia.

Of the Soil and Productions. Pennsylvania contains all the varieties of soil. Its productions are all sorts of grain, roots and fruits common in temperate latitudes. The staple of the state is wheat or flour, of which great quantities are exported. In this state grow several species of trees not found in more northern climates.

Of the Principal Towns. The city of Philadelphia is the chief town in Pennsylvania. It was founded by William Penn, in 1683, and from him it received its name, which is composed of two Greek words signifying *brotherly love.* It stands on the west bank of the Delaware, one hundred and twenty miles from the sea, and five miles above its junction with the Schuylkill.

Of the Plan of Philadelphia. Philadelphia, according to its primitive plan, extends about a mile along the Delaware, and from that river to the Schuylkill. But the conveniences for trade have enlarged the settlements on the Delaware, to an extent of nearly three miles. The north part of the town is called Kensington—the south part, Southwark.—These now form one continued settlement or town, in union with the city.

Of the Streets The principal streets are strait, and cross each other at right angles; nine of these within the city run from one river to the other; and these are crossed by twenty-three which run nearly north and south. These streets are built on, from the Delaware to tenth and twelfth streets. In the centre of the city runs high street, one hundred feet wide, in which is the principal market. The streets in general are fifty feet in breadth, well paved, and bordered with broad footwalks, paved with brick. The streets which run east *and west* are called by the names of the trees which *grew on* the land, as mulbury, chesnut, walnut, pine and *spruce.* Those which run north and south are called

and numbered from the Delaware, water, front, second, third, &c.

Of the Banks and Insurance Companies. There are four incorporated banks in Philadelphia—the bank of the United States—the bank of North-America—the bank of Pennsylvania, and the Philadelphia bank. There are several incorporated companies, for insurance against losses at sea, and by fire.

Of the Buildings. That part of the city which was built before the American revolution, consists mostly of brick houses, three stories high, plain and well built. Since the revolution, large additions have been made, the houses are constructed on a larger plan, and with unusual taste and elegance. The market house in high-street is the largest building of the kind in America, and for abundance of provisions, neatness and regularity, is not exceeded by any perhaps in the world.

Of the Public Edifices. The public edifices of most importance are the churches, some of which, as particularly the German Lutheran, are unusually large and elegant. The state-house is a very large edifice—the new court-house, the theatre, the library, the hospital, the alms-house, are large and handsome structures. The jail is one of the largest and best constructed buildings of the kind in the United States. The new edifice for the bank of the United States, is a most elegant structure, ornamented in front with marble columns. The bank of Pennsylvania is an elegant structure of white marble, quarried a few miles from the city, and each front is ornamented with six Ionic columns of marble. Over the Schuylkill is a bridge supported by solid eliptical piers.

Of the public Institutions. The charitable institutions in Philadelphia, are among the most liberal and useful in the United States. Of these the most distinguished are, the hospital, the alms-house and the dispensary. The library, with the Loganian addition of rare and valuable authors, is one of the largest and best *selected collections* of books in the United States.—*The university* is eminent, especially for the reputation,

of its medical professors. The philosophical society holds a distinguished rank among literary institutions. Many charitable societies, academies and schools do honor to the citizens; and the cabinet of curiosities, collected by Mr. Peale, is the best in the United States. It consists of all kinds of animals in good preservation, and a valuable collection of minerals.

Of the Water-works. The building and machinery for raising and distributing water through the city, far exceed in magnitude, any thing of the kind in this country A large stream of water is brought in a subterraneous canal, from the Schuylkill, to an elevation near the center of the city; the water is then raised by steam to a reservoir on the top of a circular brick edifice, from which it is distributed by bored logs to the different parts of the city

Of the Population. The indulgence of all religious opinions in Pennsylvania, and other allurements offered to settlers by the proprietors, rendered the growth of the province and the city of Philadelphia very rapid.—In 1749, the houses in Philadelphia were upwards of two thousand—in 1760, nearly three thousand—in 1770, five thousand five hundred. The inhabitants in the latter year, were thirty-five thousand. The revolution suspended the growth of the city. In 1790, the inhabitants of the city and suburbs were forty-one thousand—in 1800, seventy-two thousand. The city is governed by a mayor, aldermen and common council.

Of the inhabitants of the State. The province of Pennsylvania was first peopled by the friends or quakers under the patronage of their celebrated leader, William Penn. But the liberal privileges offered to all denominations, drew settlers from Ireland and Germany as well as England, and the greatest part of the present inhabitants are emigrants from those countries, or their descendants. In 1790, the number was four hundred and thirty-four thousand. In 1800, six hundred *and four* thousand, of which eleven hundred and fifty *were slaves.*

Of the Manufactures. Pennsylvania is distinguished for its manufactures, of which the principal are bar iron, nails, and almost every species of iron castings; paper, books, leather, gun-powder, glauber's salt, flour, loaf-sugar, chocolate, hair-powder, snuff, tobacco, utensils and furniture of all kinds, carriages, hats, saddlery, beer and porter, some cotton cloths, linen and stockings, brick of an excellent fabric and beauty; and a multitude of other articles. The mint of the United States is at Philadelphia.

Of the Commerce. The commerce of Philadelphia extends to all parts of the world, and comprehends the purchase and sale of every species of commodity. The exports consist mostly of the staple, flour, grain of several kinds, iron, utensils of all kinds, mahogany furniture, carriages, and other manufactured articles, East and West-India and European goods. The value of the exports from that city in 1800 amounted nearly to twelve millions of dollars.

Of the state of Learning. In Pennsylvania is one university, the seat of which is Philadelphia; a college at Carlisle and another at Lancaster. There are numerous academies and schools in Philadelphia and other large towns. The legislature have reserved sixty thousand acres of land as a fund for supporting public schools. The Moravian academies, at Bethlehem and Nazareth are noted for strict discipline and morals.

Of the Militia. The militia according to returns made to the War-Office in the year 1802, consisted of thirteen divisions, twenty-six brigades, and one hundred and thirty-eight regiments, containing seventy-six thousand effective infantry. No artillery, cavalry or grenadiers are mentioned in the returns.

Of the Constitution of Government. The power of making laws is vested in the general assembly consisting of two branches, a senate and a house of representatives. The representatives are chosen for one year; and the number cannot be less than sixty nor more than a hundred. The number is determined by the legislature and apportioned on the counties and the

city of Philadelphia according to the number of taxable inhabitants. The senators are chosen by districts for four years, and the number cannot be less than a fourth, nor more than a third of the number of representatives.

Of the Qualifications of Representatives and Senators. To entitle a man to be a representative, he must be twenty-one years of age, a citizen and inhabitant of the state three years preceding his election, and one year a resident in the city or county in which he is chosen. A senator must be twenty-one years of age, and have been four years before his election a citizen of the state, and one year an inhabitant of the district for which he is chosen.

Of the Qualifications of the Electors. To entitle a man to the privilege of voting for rulers, he must be of legal age; must have resided in the state two years before the election and have paid a state or county tax, which has been assessed six months before the election. The sons of electors, between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-two, are entitled to vote without having paid taxes. Elections are by ballot.

Of the Executive Power. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor who is chosen on the second Tuesday of October, once in three years, but can hold the office no more than nine years in twelve. A plurality of votes decides the choice. The governor must be thirty years of age, and must have been a citizen and inhabitant of the state for seven years, next before his election. He appoints the judges, justices of the peace, and most other officers. But sheriffs are chosen by the freemen, and can hold their offices only three years in six.

Of the Judiciary. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole state, and several subordinate courts, whose power is limited to counties or districts. The judges hold their offices during good behavior, but may be removed by the governor on the address of two thirds of the legislature.

Of the Religion of the State. The principal denominations are friends or quakers, presbyterians, episcopalians, and catholics; but there are many other persuasions. All denominations enjoy their principles, and worship without control or distinction, and no person believing in a God and a future state of rewards and punishments, is disqualified for civil offices.

Delaware.

Of the Situation and Extent of Delaware. The state of Delaware lies on the west side of the river and bay of the same name, in the thirty-ninth and fortieth degrees of latitude, and in the seventy-sixth degree of west longitude. It is about ninety miles in length, and on an average, may be twenty-four in breadth. It may therefore contain about one million three hundred and eighty thousand acres.

Of the Bounds and Name. The state is bounded on the east, by the river, the bay, and the ocean; on the south and west, by Maryland, and on the north, by Pennsylvania. It is named after lord Delawar, one of the chief agents in the settlement of Virginia.

Of the face of the Country. The northern part of the state is hilly; but the principal part is almost perfectly level. Being on a narrow peninsula, between the Delaware and Chesapeak, it has no large rivers; but, it is intersected with many small rivers, creeks and inlets. The principal rivers are the Brandywine, memorable for the battle of September 11, 1777, and the Christiana, which unite, and fall into the Delaware, below Wilmington.

Of the Counties and Towns. This state is divided into three counties—Newcastle on the north—Kent in the middle, and Sussex on the south; and into twenty-four districts, called hundreds. The chief town is Wilmington, a handsome town on an elevation between the Brandywine and Christiana creeks, two miles from the Delaware and twenty-eight from Philadelphia. It is laid out and built with regularity, on the north side of the Christiana, which admits vessels of fourteen

feet draft to the town. It is a place of trade and manufactures, and has a bank, called the bank of Delaware.

Of Newcastle and Dover. Newcastle is a small town, five miles below Wilmington, on the Delaware. It is the oldest town on that river; being built by the Swedes about the year 1627.

Dover is a small town on the south side of Jones' creek, four miles from the Delaware and forty-eight miles below Wilmington. It contains about a hundred houses, and in the midst of the town, a spacious square or green. It is the seat of government, and has an elegant court-house on the east side of the square.

Of the Inhabitants. The first settlements, within the limits of Delaware, were made by the Swedes, and their descendants still remain in that state and in Pennsylvania. But the principal part of the inhabitants are of British origin. The number in 1790, was fifty-nine thousand—in 1800, sixty-four thousand two hundred and seventy, of which six thousand one hundred and fifty were slaves.

Of the Soil and Productions. The northern parts of Delaware consist of a strong clay; the southern part, of sand. The soil is fruitful in all the kinds of grain, roots and plants which are found in the same latitudes, in other states or countries; but the staple commodity is wheat.

Of the Manufactures. The principal manufacture is that of flour. The mills on the Brandywine, near Wilmington, are twelve in number, and among the most ingenious and complete that are found in this country. On the same, and other rivers, are mills for various other purposes—paper, snuff, nail-rods, wool cards, bolting cloths, and various other articles, are manufactured in and near Wilmington.

Of the Commerce. This state although in the vicinity of the large city, Philadelphia, carries on no small foreign trade. Its exports in 1800, amounted to more than four hundred and eighteen thousand dollars. Besides wheat and other grain, lumber and various

articles of manufacture are exported to foreign countries and to the neighboring states.

Of the Schools. There are private schools in this state, and especially in Wilmington. In 1796, the legislature passed an act for creating a fund for the support of public schools. There is no college in the state, but an academy at Newark, a few miles from Wilmington.

Of the Religious Persuasions. In Delaware are many Christian denominations; but the principal are the presbyterians, episcopalians, quakers and baptists. There is a Swedish church at Wilmington, and one of the oldest in this country. No preference is allowed by law, to any particular church; but every man chosen to an office, is required, before entering on its duties, to subscribe a declaration of his belief in the Trinity and in the divine inspiration of the scriptures. No clergyman can hold a civil office or be a member of the legislature.

Of the Government. By the constitution, adopted in 1790, the legislature consists of two branches, called the general assembly. The house of assembly consists of twenty-one members, chosen annually, seven from each county. The senate is composed of nine members, three from each county, elected for three years; one third renewed every year.

Qualifications. To be eligible to the senate, a man must be twenty seven years of age—possess two hundred acres of land, or real and personal estate to the value of two thousand six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds. The representatives must be twenty-four years old and possess a freehold estate. Both must have been three years resident in the state. Two years residence and the payment of a tax assessed six months before the election, qualify a man to be an elector.

Of the Executive. The executive authority is vested in a governor, who is chosen for three years, and who can hold that office only three years in six. He has no council, and makes most of the appointments. He must be thirty years of age, must have been six years a citi-

zen of the state, and twelve years a citizen of the United States.

Of the Judges. Judges of the courts are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior. They are removeable by impeachment, if two thirds of the house of representatives concur; and the governor may displace them on the address of two thirds of the members of both houses. Their salaries cannot be diminished while in office.

Maryland.

Of the situation of Maryland. Maryland lies in the thirty-eighth and thirty-ninth degrees of latitude, and extends from seventy-five degrees eight minutes to seventy-nine degrees thirty-eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. Maryland has the Atlantic and the state of Delaware, on the east; on the south and west, it is separated from Virginia by the Potomac, and a line from the south side of that river, at its entrance into the Chesapeak, due east to the Atlantic; on the north it is bounded by Pennsylvania.

Of the Extent. The length of Maryland is about one hundred and thirty miles, and the breadth one hundred and ten. Its surface may be about fourteen thousand square miles, containing almost nine millions of acres; but one sixth part is covered with water.

Of the face of the Country. The surface of this state is variegated with hills, plains, bays and rivers. The Chesapeake penetrates almost the whole state from south to north. From this extend many smaller bays and creeks in various directions. On the east is a low plain to the Atlantic—on the west the country is generally level, except the counties at the north-western extremity of the state, which are diversified with hilly and mountainous tracts.

Of Small Rivers. In addition to the Susquehanna, which enters the Chesapeake in Maryland on the west, the Petapsco, which has its sources in Pennsylvania, enters the Chesapeake, just below Baltimore. The Patuxent proceeds from the northern part of the state and

discharges into the same bay, about fifteen miles north of the Potomac. This is navigable for ships of burden about forty miles, and boatable twelve miles further. On the east are the Chester, the Choptank, the Nanticoke and the Pocomoke, all considerable rivers rising within or near the state of Delaware and running southwest into the Chesapeak. They all furnish navigable water for many miles

Of the Counties. Maryland contains nineteen counties besides the district of Columbia On the peninsula, east of the bay, called the Eastern shore, are eight counties—Cecil, Kent, Queen Anns, Caroline, Talbot, Somerset, Dorchester, and Worcester. On the west are eleven counties—Harford, Baltimore, Ann Arundel, Frederic, Allegany, Washington, Montgomery, Prince George, Calvert, Charles, St. Mary's.

Of the Inhabitants The white inhabitants of Maryland are mostly descendants or emigrants from the British dominions, and a large part from Ireland. In 1790, the whites were two hundred and seventeen thousand—the slaves one hundred and three thousand. In 1800, the number of the slaves was one hundred and seven thousand, and the whites had multiplied to two hundred and forty-two thousand.

Soil and Productions. The plains of Maryland are sandy, but the land in the northern parts of the state is mostly a red clay or loam. The land produces all kinds of roots, plants and grain; but the staple productions are wheat and tobacco.

Of the Commerce The trade of Maryland consists in the export of great quantities of wheat, flour, tobacco, maiz, pork, pig iron, lumber, and many commodities of less value. Large quantities of flour from the interior of Pennsylvania are carried to Baltimore and shipped for foreign markets. In 1800 the value of exports exceeded twelve millions of dollars.

Of the Chief Towns. Baltimore is now the third town in population and trade in the United States. It lies on a small arm of the river Petapsco, called the basson, fifteen miles from the Chesapeak, about one hundred and sixty miles from the capes, and sixty fr

the head of Elk river. The town lies in two divisions. West Baltimore has but four feet of water, when the tide is out—but at Fell's point, or East Baltimore, a mile below, is water for ships of burthen, and one of the best harbors in the United States.

Of the Progress of Baltimore. Before the revolution, Baltimore was an inconsiderable village; but its favorable situation for business and its safety from an enemy, were perceived during the war and it grew with great rapidity. Immediately after the war, the streets were paved, a large market was built and the town assumed the appearance of a rich commercial city.—The same circumstances have continued to operate in its favor. In 1785, it contained nineteen hundred and fifty houses. In 1790, it contained thirteen thousand five hundred inhabitants—in 1800, twenty-six thousand and five hundred. There are in Baltimore two banks, besides a branch of the bank of the United States, and three insurance companies.

Of Annapolis. Annapolis is situated on a small river, called the Severn, near its junction with the Chesapeak. It is on elevated ground, and commands a beautiful prospect of the bay. It contains two or three hundred houses, which are some of the largest and best built in the United States, the town being the seat of government and the residence of many wealthy families. The state house, which is large and elegant, stands on high ground, and from that the streets diverge like rays of light in different directions.

Of Washington Washington in the district of Columbia, is the seat of the national government. It is situated on the Potomac, and a river called the Eastern Branch, at the point of junction about four miles from Georgetown, and five from Alexandria, in Virginia, in thirty-eight degrees, and fifty-three minutes of north latitude. The principal streets are called avenues, and are named after the several states. They cross each other in various angles, and are from one hundred and *sixty to one* hundred and thirty feet wide. The other *streets* are from ninety to one hundred and ten feet wide.

A branch of the United States bank is established in this city.

Of the Buildings. The capitol, or house for the legislature, is placed on an eminence with a commanding prospect. One mile from that, is the president's house, on another eminence, and in full view. They are built of a beautiful white stone from an island in the Potomac, forty miles below the city, a stone, which, when first taken from the quarry, is soft and easily wrought, but soon hardens in the air.

Of the District of Columbia. The district of Columbia was laid out, in pursuance of an act of Congress of July 16, 1790, and of an additional act of March 3, 1791. It is ten miles square, the center of which is near the center of Washington, and it extends so as to include Georgetown in Maryland, and Alexandria, on the Virginia side of the Potomac. It is subject to the sole and immediate jurisdiction of Congress

Of the Literary Institutions. The principal institutions for the education of youth, are, Washington academy, in Somerset county, instituted in 1779, Washington college at Chester, founded in 1782, St John's college at Annapolis, founded in 1784, a college at Georgetown, instituted by the catholics, and Cokesbury college in Harford county, instituted by the methodists in 1785. There are private schools in many places; and private tutors in families; and many young men are sent for their education, either to Europe, or one of the colleges in the northern states.

Religious Denominations. Maryland was originally settled by catholics from Ireland, and these are a numerous denomination But there are also episcopalians, presbyterians, methodists, quakers, and other less considerable denominations. All religious persuasions are indulged, without distinction; the rights of all are respected; and no religious test is required on admission to office, except a declaration in the belief of the christian religion But no gift, sale or devise of real or *personal estate* to a minister of the gospel, as such, *is valid, without* the consent of the legislature.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Mar land, dated August 14, 1776, the legislature consists two branches; a senate and house of delegates, whi are stiled "the General Assembly." The annual se sion is on the first Monday in November at Anna olis.

Of the House of Delegates. The delegates are chos by the freemen of the counties. They must be of ag residents in the county one year preceding the electio and possessed of real or personal estate to the value thirteen hundred and thirty-three dollars and a third. Four are elected for each county. An elector must b of age; must reside in the county where he offers vote; and possess fifty acres of land in that county, possess property in the state to the value of eighty do lars, and have resided in the county a year. The vot are given by the voice.

Of the Senate. The senate consists of fifteen mem bers, nine from the western and six from the easte shore, who must be twenty-five years of age, of thr years residence in the state, and possess real and pe sonal property to the value of two thousand six hundr and sixty-six dollars and two thirds. They hold the seats for five years.

Of the choice of Senators. The electors in the sta chuse, on the first day of September, two persons each county to be electors of the senate. These elec ors meet at Annapolis on the third Monday of t same month, and elect by ballot fifteen persons for se ators.

Of the Executive. The governor of Maryland is ch sen by the General Assembly on the second Monday November. The two houses vote separately and ballot. In case of an equal vote between two men, t election is determined by lot. The governor may continued in office for three years; after which he ca not be elected for the four succeeding years. He has council of five, to assist him in his duties.

Of the Judiciary. The supreme court of law, is cal ed the "general court." The judges of this court, t chancellor, and all judges and justices, the attor

general, officers of the militia, and most other officers are appointed by the governor and council. The judges hold their office during good behavior.

Of the Powers of the Executive. The governor is commander in chief of the militia, and with consent of the council, he may embody them. He may grant reprieves and pardons, and during the recess of the assembly, may lay an embargo. He may also compel ships to ride quarantine, on strong grounds of suspicion that they are infected with a pestilential disease.

Of Sheriffs. The sheriffs are elected by ballot in the several counties, commissioned by the governor, and hold their office for three years. After that term they cannot be elected to the same office, until the expiration of four years The sheriff must be of legal age, and have property in the county, to the value of twenty-six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds.

Virginia

Of the Situation. Virginia extends from thirty-six degrees and a half to forty and a half, of north latitude, and from seventy-five degrees, fifty-four minutes to eighty-three degrees eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. The Atlantic is the eastern boundary of Virginia; North-Carolina and Tennessee are its limits on the south; on the west it is bounded by the great Sandy river, and a south line from that river to North-Carolina, which separates it from Kentucky; and on the north-west and north, by the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the Potomac.

Of the Extent. The utmost extent of Virginia is three hundred and fifty miles, by two hundred and twenty-five, but the average length and breadth are not more than three hundred and thirty miles by one hundred and seventy. These dimensions give fifty-six thousand and one hundred square miles, and thirty-five *millions, nine* hundred and four thousand acres. The *actual number* of acres is probably greater, on accou

of the mountains in the western part of the state; and perhaps a million of acres may be covered with water.

Of the Mountains. Vast ridges of mountains extend from north-east to south-west, through the interior of Virginia. The first great range, on the east is the Blue Ridge, then the north mountain, Jackson's mountain and some smaller elevations; then the highest and principal range, called the Allegany. On the west is the Laurel mountain, and finally the Cumberland, which bounds the state

Of the Bays and Rivers. The great Chesapeak enters the land within Virginia, between the capes called Cape Charles and Cape Henry. Into this bay are discharged some of the largest rivers in the United States, viz. the Potomac, the Rappahannock, York, and Powhattan rivers. These rivers proceed from the mountains, and running a south-eastern course, water immense tracts of country, and furnish navigable or boatable water to the very foot of the Allegany.

Of smaller Rivers. On the south the Nansemond and Elizabeth rivers, which have their sources in and near the great swamp called the Dismal, enter the bay near Norfolk. The Appomattox a considerable branch of the James, enters that river from the south west at Bermuda Hundred. This bears vessels of fifty tons to Petersburgh. On the north, are the Chickahominy and the Rivanna, two considerable tributary streams of the Powhattan. The Roanoke has its sources in Virginia. On the west of the mountains are the great Kanhaway, the Monongahela, and the Yohogany, which also have their sources in this state.

Of the Swamps. The most remarkable swamp in the United States is the Dismal Swamp, or Great Dismal, on the southern border of Virginia near the Atlantic. It is one extended bog of thirty miles by ten, and is the source of five considerable rivers. The soil sustains persons walking on it, but trembles under the feet. It is overgrown with reeds, briars, cypress, white cedar and an almost impenetrable thicket of shrubbery. In the midst of it is a large pond or lake.

Of Mount Vernon. On the western bank of the Potomac nine miles below Alexandria, is the seat of the late general Washington. The house stands within fifty yards of the brink of a high steep bank, at a bend in the river, which affords a view of an extensive and delightful landskip. The house is large but more magnificent than elegant. On the west is a handsome bowling green, and on each side serpentine walks, bordered with trees, a flower garden on one side, and on the other, a kitchen garden. The position and the improvements all rendered it a charming retreat, and worthy of the illustrious proprietor.

Of the Climate. The eastern and southern parts of Virginia have a mild atmosphere, as they are near the Atlantic, and approach the latitudes where winter is rarely known in severity. These parts are mostly level, and the waters are bordered with marshes, that expose the inhabitants to autumnal diseases. The interior and mountainous tracts have a colder atmosphere in winter, but dry and salubrious in summer. So mild are the winters in the southern part of the state, that the fig, the olive and the pomegranate will come to perfection, and from the first settlement of the country, cattle have subsisted in common winters, on the grass and shrubs.

Of the soil and Productions. The eastern and southern parts of the state are mostly sandy—the northern and western parts are clay, loam or gravel, the rivers are bordered with rich mold. The staple productions are wheat and tobacco; cotton is also raised for domestic use, and maiz forms the principal food of the slaves. Cider and peach brandy are made in considerable quantities.

Of the Cattle and Horses. Great numbers of excellent cattle are raised in the western and mountainous parts of Virginia; where they have a wide range and subsist summer and winter in the woods, unless in very intemperate winters. Virginia is also remarkable for its breed of elegant horses, which is from England, and is cultivated with great care and expense.

Counties and Towns. Virginia is divided into eighty-two counties, two of which are on the eastern shore at the extremity of the peninsula. But the towns are not numerous nor large, the people being generally settled on plantations. Norfolk a Borough on the southern shore of the bay, just within the capes, is the chief commercial port, and contained in the year 1800, three thousand, five hundred whites, and three thousand blacks. Here is a branch of the bank of the United States.

Of other considerable Towns. Williamsburg, between the York and Powhattan, formerly the seat of government is a pleasant town and contains a college. Richmond, on the northern bank of the Powhattan, and the present seat of government contained in 1800, three thousand, four hundred and fifty whites, and two thousand three hundred blacks. Petersburg, on the Appomattox, is a place of considerable trade. Alexandria, on the bank of the Potomac, is a place of active thriving commerce, and here is established a bank. Winchester, on the Opecan creek, one hundred and ten miles north-westerly from Alexandria, is a considerable town, as is Fredericksburgh on the south bank of the Rappahannoe, and Staunton, on a branch of the Potomac, one hundred miles south-westerly of Winchester.

Of the Inhabitants. Virginia was originally settled almost wholly by English people, who show their descent by their character and language. The lands below the mountains are mostly divided into separate plantations, on which the proprietor resides; and these are chiefly cultivated with slaves. The inhabitants in 1790, were, whites, five hundred and fifty-five thousand—slaves, two hundred and ninety-two thousand. In 1800, the whites were five hundred and forty thousand; slaves, three hundred and forty-six thousand.

Of the Militia. The military force of this state is composed of four divisions, nineteen brigades, ninety-one regiments, and fifty-six thousand privates—all infantry.

Of Public Institutions. An association for insurance against losses by fire is established, in this state, wh

s very extensive. A state bank is established at Richmond, with a capital of a million and a half of dollars, in which the state is interested to the amount of one fifth. Branches of this bank are placed in Norfolk, Petersburg and Fredericksburg.

Of the Commerce. Formerly the principle article of export was tobacco, of which from fifty to sixty thousand hogsheads were produced in a year. Within a few years, the planters have raised less tobacco, and more wheat. Of both these articles, and of flour and maiz, great quantities are exported. Lumber constitutes another chief article of export. The amount of exports in 1800, was about four millions and a half—in 1796, it rose above five millions.

Seminaries of Learning. The college in Williamsburg was founded during the reign of William and Mary, and called by their names. It was endowed by them with twenty thousand acres of land, and the proceeds of a duty of one penny on the pound of tobacco exported—with a duty on skins and furs exported, and liquors imported. It is under the government of twenty visitors, a president and professors in the most important branches of science. There is also a college in the county of Prince Edward, and academies in the principal towns, as well as numerous schools in other parts of the state.

Of the Religious Denominations. The religious denominations are chiefly presbyterians, episcopalians, baptists, and methodists. All men are indulged in their religious opinions and worship, without the interference of law. From the scattered mode of settlement in this state, the churches are less numerous, than in the more northern states. Ministers of the gospel are incapable of being elected members of the legislature or privy council.

Of the Government. The legislature of Virginia, by an ordinance of the representatives of the state in convention, dated July 5, 1776, consists of two branches —a house of delegates, composed of two members for a county—and a senate composed of twenty-four members, chosen in districts. These houses constitute the

General Assembly—The senators hold their pl four years, one fourth being removed annually l tion. The delegates are elected annually.

Of the Qualifications. No specific value of p is required to qualify a man for a senator or d in Virginia; but both must be freeholders and r in the district or county for which they are elect the senators must be twenty five years of age electors also must be freeholders.

Of the Mode of enacting Laws. All bills f must originate in the house of delegates; but t ate may propose amendments, except in mone The concurrence of both branches is necessary stitute a law.

Of the Executive. A governor is annually ch the two houses of assembly, by ballot, each hou ing separately. He may be continued in of three years, and is then ineligible for four years cession. To assist him in the administration, a privy council of eight members, chosen by jo lot of the two houses, from their own number people at large. Two of their number are r every three years by joint ballot of the two and they remain ineligible for the three following A member of the council cannot sit in either h assembly.

Of the Judiciary. The courts are, a supreme of appeals, a general court, a court of chance county courts. The judges and justices of the are appointed by joint ballot of both houses of bly, and commissioned by the governor. The hold their offices during good behavior, and hav salaries. The sheriffs and coroners are nomin the county courts, approved by the governor and cil and commissioned by the governor. Constab appointed by the justices.

North-Carolina.

Of the Situation. North-Carolina is situated *thirty-three* degrees fifty minutes—and thir

grees thirty minutes of north latitude; and between seventy-six degrees and eighty-three degrees eight minutes of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. This state has the Atlantic on the east, the state of South-Carolina on the south, Tennessee on the west, and Virginia on the north.

Of the Extent. The length of North-Carolina, east and west, is three hundred and fifty miles, and its breadth on an average, is about one hundred and fifty. The surface of the state therefore contains about fifty-two thousand five hundred square miles, and upwards of thirty three millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. The surface of North-Carolina, for more than a hundred miles from the ocean, is an extended sandy plain. West of that plain the land rises into hills and mountains, which are the continuation of the Allegany ridges, but in this state they are sometimes called the Appalachian mountains.

Of the shore of North-Carolina. Almost the whole of this state is bordered with a bank of sand, nearly a mile in breadth. Within this is a channel called the Swash, which is navigable for small vessels. The principal passages or inlets through the beach are, Ocracoc, Roanoke, and Currituc, which admit vessels of some burden.

Of the Sounds. On the coast of North-Carolina are two large sounds or lakes. Albemarle sound, extending sixty miles from the sea, and of about ten miles in breadth, receives the waters of the Roanoke, and Chowan rivers. Pamptico sound is one hundred miles in length, and from ten to thirty in breadth. It receives the Nuse and the Tar, and communicates with the ocean by Ocracoc inlet.

Of the Capes. On the coast of this state are the capes Hatteras, Lookout, and Fear, all formidable to seamen. Hatteras is a point of land, or sand beach extending far into the ocean; and beyond this is shoal water, for five or six leagues. On and near this cape, the weather is often tempestuous or squally, and remarkable for frequent thunder storms. To the southward are Cape Lookout and Cape Fear.

Of the Swamps. Between the Albemarle and Pamptico sounds, lies a vast bog, called the *Dismal*, similar to that on the border of the state of Virginia. It covers more than five hundred square miles, and three hundred thousand acres. It contains a lake of eleven miles by seven in extent, which is connected with a navigable river, entering Albemarle sound. A similar bog lies near the south line of the state, called *Green Swamp*, but of less extent.

Of the Climate and soil. The flat lands from the ocean to the mountains, of nearly a hundred miles in extent, contain much barren sand abounding with pines. On the banks of the rivers, the land is fertile, as it is in the interior and mountainous parts of the state.

Of the Staple Commodities. Wheat, tobacco, maiz and cotton are raised in great abundance; as well as the inferior sorts of grain. The cotton is planted yearly, as there is frost enough in winter to kill the stalks. The vast forests of the pitch pine furnish great quantities of turpentine, which is made into tar and exported.

Of the Manufactures. The chief manufacture is that of cotton, for domestic clothing. Almost every family has a small plantation of cotton for its own consumption; and it is cleaned, spun and wove in private families. This constitutes the principal article of clothing for common use and for the slaves. In the interior of the state are several furnaces and forges for the manufacture of iron.

Of the Exports. The exports are, wheat, tobacco, maiz, turpentine, tar, pitch, lumber, and some smaller articles. The difficulty of entering the rivers in North-Carolina, and the unsafety of the harbours from the flatness of the country and the consequent exposure to winds, prevents the establishment of any great mart in the state. A considerable part of the commodities are conveyed to a market, through Virginia and South-Carolina. The exports in 1800, amounted to the value of seven hundred and sixty-eight thousand dollars.

Of the Counties and Inhabitants. North-Carolina is divided into fifty-eight counties which contained in 17

wo hundred and ninety-four thousand white inhabitants, and one hundred thousand slaves. In 1800, the inhabitants were four hundred and seventy-eight thousand, of whom one hundred and thirty-three thousand were slaves.

Of the Chief Towns. In this state, as in Virginia, the inhabitants mostly reside on plantations. There are no large towns; the principal are Edenton on the north side of Albemarle sound; Newbern, on the Nuse, at the confluence of the Trent; Wilmington on the eastern branch of Cape Fear river, which are places of trade. Halifax, on the Roanoke, six miles below the falls; Hillsborough, one hundred and eighty miles westward of Newbern, the present seat of government, and Fayetville, on the Cape Fear, a hundred miles above Wilmington—these are the chief towns, none of which contain more than four or five hundred houses.

Of the State of Learning. In 1789 the legislature passed an act, incorporating a number of persons, as trustees of a university to be established, and funds were supplied for the purpose of erecting buildings. There is an academy at Warrenton, and a few others in the state; but the education of all classes of people is not general. In 1803, however, the legislature passed an act for the establishment of public schools.

Of the State of Religion. The chief religious denominations in the state are presbyterians, episcopalians, methodists, baptists, quakers and moravians. By the constitution, perfect liberty of conscience and worship is enjoyed, without distinction or preference. No person can be compelled to attend worship contrary to his faith or judgment; nor to contribute towards the building of a church or maintenance of a minister; nor can a minister of the gospel while such be a member of the legislature or council of state. No person denying the being of a God, or the truth of the protestant religion, or of the scriptures, can hold any civil office

Of the Government. By the constitution of the state, established December 18, 1776, the legislative authority is vested in two branches, a Senate and a House of Com-

mons, which compose the *General Assembly*. The members are chosen by ballot annually; for the senate, *one* person in each county; for the commons, *two* persons in a county, and one for Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, and Halifax.

Of the Qualifications. A candidate for the senate must have resided in the county he is to represent, one year, and must possess during that time at least three hundred acres of land in fee. A candidate for the commons must also have possessed for six months, one hundred acres of land in the county, either in fee or for life.

Of the Electors. All freemen of legal age, who have been inhabitants of any county in the state for one year before the day of election, and who have for six months, possessed a freehold of fifty acres of land, in the same county, are entitled to vote for senators. To qualify a person to vote for a member of the commons nothing more is necessary than a year's residence and payment of public taxes.

Of the Executive. The governor of North-Carolina is elected annually, by the joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature at their first meeting. He is eligible to that office only three years in six. He must be thirty years of age, a resident for five years in the state, and possess a freehold in lands and tenements, above the value of twenty-five hundred dollars.

Of the Council. The two houses, at their first annual meeting, chuse by joint ballot, seven persons, to be a council of state for one year, to advise and assist the governor in the duties of his office. They are to enter their proceedings in a journal which is to be laid before the legislature, when called for.

Of the Judiciary and other Appointments. The General Assembly, by joint ballot of the houses, appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity, and the attorney-general, who are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior. In the same manner are appointed all general and field officers of the militia, the treasurer and secretary. The *justices* of the peace are commissioned by the gover-

on the recommendation of the representatives of the counties, and remain in office during good behavior.

Persons precluded from the Legislature. The following officers are precluded from a seat in the General Assembly—clergymen—receivers of public monies, while in arrear to the state—the treasurer—officers in the army and navy—contractors and agents for supplying the army or navy—councillors of state—judges of the supreme courts of law and equity—atheists and infidels.

Of the Powers of the Executive. The governor is commander in chief of the militia. He has power to draw from the treasury, and apply such money as the law directs, for the contingencies of the government. With advice of council, he may lay an embargo for thirty days, in the recess of the assembly. He may grant pardons and reprieves, unless in cases prosecuted by the general assembly; and in such cases until the next session of that body In case of his death, inability or absence, his office may be exercised by the speaker of the senate; or if this officer should fail, by the speaker of the commons.

South-Carolina.

Of the Situation. South-Carolina is situated within the thirty-third, fourth and fifth degrees of latitude; and extends from seventy-eight to eighty-three degrees of west longitude, running from the Atlantic nearly in a north-westerly direction

Of the Bounds. On the north lies North-Carolina—on the east the Atlantic—on the south and west, the state is divided from Tennessee and Georgia, by the Savannah and its head branches, the Tugulo and Chatuga.

Of the Extent. The breadth of this state, on the Atlantic, is one hundred and sixty miles, but is narrowed almost to a point on the west. Its average *length may be* two hundred and ten miles, and the *breadth one* hundred and twenty, giving an area of

more than twenty-five thousand square miles, an teen millions of acres.

Of the Surface and Soil. On the Atlantic is dy plain, extending, in Carolina and Georgia, thirty to forty miles from the sea—then the lan for a few miles, by sand hills or ridges two hundr or more above the level of the sea; and another of more than fifty miles begins and extends west —The soil is a light sandy loam, of about a foot on a stratum of clay. The land then rises by h ridges, for a few miles, into a third plain of thi forty miles in extent, whose soil is loam, with ture of gravel. Then commence the mount tracts, which gradually rise for one hundred an miles further.

Of the Climate. The state of South-Carolina pies a region, where winter is scarcely known. and snow appear occasionally, but are of short tion. The summers in the flat country, are ve conveniently sultry. Near the marshy borders rivers and inlets, the air is humid, unelastic, a healthy; the human body is exhausted with he perspiration, especially during the night. The ketoes also are so vexatious, as to make it necess sleep under pavilions. The interior country enj fine temperate salubrious air in summer, and th ter season is every where delightful.

Of the Productions. This state produces alm the kinds of grain, fruits and plants which are in the United States. The staple productions a ton and rice. The cotton of the islands near the is of a fine long staple, and of the first quality.— and maiz are produced in great abundance, with t ferior kinds of grain. Indigo is also cultivated vantage. The apple does not thrive in this and southern climates; but the tropical fruits, or lemons. figs, and others, together with the finest a and peaches, are the produce of this state

Of the Division of the State. South Carolina *vided into* twenty-three districts, or precincts. *of these* are divided into counties or par

Charleston, Georgetown and Beaufort districts are situated on the sea coast, in what is called the lower country. These contain nineteen parishes. The other districts are in the interior country.

Of the Chief Towns. Charleston, the largest town in South-Carolina, is situated on a point of land at the junction of the rivers, Cooper and Ashley, which unite and form a spacious harbor in front of the town. The land rises but a little above high water, and has more than once been overflowed by the water, when impelled into the harbor by a violent east wind. It is more healthy than the low country in its neighborhood, and on that account the planters often leave their estates and reside in the town in summer.

Of the Buildings and Inhabitants. The city of Charleston is well built, but its streets, except one, are narrow. They are in general regular, and have subterraneous drains. The houses are generally of brick, and many of them elegant. The public buildings are, an exchange, a state-house, a bank, an armory, an almshouse, an orphan's house, and the churches, which are twelve in number. The inhabitants in 1791, were sixteen thousand, almost one half blacks. In the year 1800, the number of free whites was eight thousand eight hundred and twenty—that of the slaves, nine thousand and fifty—which numbers, with the free blacks, made an aggregate of almost eighteen thousand inhabitants. In this city are two banks, besides a branch of the bank of the United States.

Of other Towns. On Winyaw bay, sixty miles north-easterly of Charleston, is Georgetown, containing three or four hundred houses, and a place of some trade. Beaufort, on Port-Royal Island, about forty miles south-west of Charleston, is a small but pleasant town. Columbia, the seat of government, but a small town, about one hundred and fifteen miles north-westerly of Charleston, is on the Congaree, just below the junction of the Broad and Saluda. To these may be added Camden, Cambridge, Purrysburg, and *some others*; but the inhabitants reside chiefly on *plantations.*

Of the Inhabitants of the State. South-Carolina was at first settled by English people; but it received considerable accessions, from Germany, Switzerland, Ireland, and Scotland: and was not a little aided in population by French protestants, who fled from persecution, near the close of the seventeenth century.—In 1700, the colony did not contain more than six thousand white inhabitants In 1765, forty thousand whites, and double the number of blacks. In 1790, one hundred and forty-two thousand whites, and one hundred and seven thousand blacks. In 1800, nearly two hundred thousand whites, and a hundred and forty-six thousand blacks.

Manufactures. The value of the chief commodities of South-Carolina is such that the planters find more profit in exporting them, and importing their cloths and furniture, than in manufactures. In the interior country however, some cotton and woollen cloths are made in families for their own use, and this branch of business is growing. Near the Catawba is a rich vein of iron ore, and furnaces and forges are erected for separating and working the metal, in several of the interior districts, as in York, Spartanburg, Greenvill and Pendleton.

Commerce. The chief articles of export are cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, deer skins, turpentine, tar, pitch, rosin, myrtle wax and lumber, with various inferior commodities. The cotton is exported to Great-Britain—the tobacco mostly to France. The amount of exports in 1800, was upwards of ten millions and a half of dollars. The principal seat of commerce, is Charleston.

Of the Seminaries of Learning. Gentlemen of property have been accustomed to send their sons and daughters to England for an education. Some of them send their sons to one of the colleges in the northern states. There are several institutions in the state, called colleges and academies—a college in Charleston; one at Winnsborough, in Camden district, one at Cambridge, and one at Beaufort, with considerable funds. There are several academies and schools in

ston, Beaufort, and other parts of the state.—
uth-Carolina College, was incorporated in 1801,
a appropriation of fifty thousand dollars for e-
buildings in Columbia, and six thousand dol-
arly to maintain instructors.

e Religious Denominations. The religious per-
s are the same as in other states—presbyteri-
iscopalians, baptists, methodists, and others of
nsideration. The free exercise of religious
p is guaranteed to all persuasions, without dis-
a ; and no minister of the gospel, during the
e of his pastoral functions, is eligible to the
f governor, or to a seat in either house of the
l assembly.

he Government. By the constitution, establish-
e 3, 1790, the legislature consists of two house,
e and a house of representatives, called the gen-
sembly. The senate is elected for four years,
e house of representatives for two. One half
ate is changed by rotation, every second year.
e purpose of electing members of both houses,
e is divided into convenient districts, and elec-
re by ballot.

he Qualifications of Senators. To be eligible to
n the senate, a person must be a free white
hirty years of age, a citizen or resident in the
ive years ; and if a resident in the district,
elected, he must possess an unincumbered free-
tate of the value of thirteen hundred and thirty-
dollars and a third—if a non-resident, he must
a clear freehold estate in the district, of four
id four hundred and forty-four dollars and forty-
nts.

he Qualifications of a Representative. To qual-
rson for a seat in the house of representatives,
t be a free white male, of legal age, a citizen
ident in the state for three years. If a resi-
the district, he must possess a freehold of five
l acres of land and ten negroes ; or of the va-
six hundred sixty-six dollars and two thirds,
debt. If a non-resident, he must own a free-

hold estate of the clear value of twenty-two hundred twenty-two dollars and twenty-two cents.

Of the Qualifications of the Electors. To be a qualified elector, a man must be of age, a citizen of the state, and a resident for two years—he must have a freehold of fifty acres of land, or a town lot, of which he has been seized for six months before the election, or if he has no such estate, he must have resided in the district six months, and paid a tax of two thirds of a dollar towards the support of government

Of the Executive. The governor is chosen by the joint ballot of the two houses of the Legislature, and continues in office for two years, and until another is chosen. He must be thirty years of age, and a resident and citizen of the state for ten years preceding his election. He must also possess a settled estate of the value of six thousand six hundred sixty-six dollars and two thirds. Having served for two years, he cannot be again elected, until the end of four years. A lieutenant-governor is also chosen, with the same qualifications.

Of the Judiciary. The judges of the superior courts, commissioners of the treasury, secretary of state, and surveyor general, are elected by the joint ballot of the two houses of the legislature.—The judges hold their offices during good behavior. All officers are commissioned by the governor.

Of the Militia. The militia of the state consists of two divisions, nine brigades, forty-six regiments, and twenty-eight thousand infantry; and a body of cavalry, artillery and riflemen.

Georgia.

Of the Situation of Georgia. Georgia lies between the middle of the thirty-first degree of north latitude, and the beginning of the thirty-sixth; and it extends from the eightieth degree of west longitude to the *middle* of the eighty-fifth.

Of the Bounds Georgia has the Savannah on the north, the Atlantic on the east, the St. Mary and

boundary line of the United States on the south, adjacent to Florida; and on the west, the river Apilachicola or Chatahoochy.

Of the Extent. Georgia has about one hundred miles of sea coast, but spreads like a fan towards the western boundary. Its surface, if regular, would form a figure of two hundred miles north and south, by two hundred and fifty east and west, containing fifty thousand square miles, and thirty-two millions of acres.

Of the Face of the State and Soil. The face of this state resembles that of South-Carolina, which has been described; being sandy near the Atlantic, and rising westward into hills and mountains. But the southern side of the state is nearly level. The soil of the low country is sandy, except on the rivers; a more generous soil is found in the western parts of the state and upon the islands.

Of the Rivers. The Savannah washes the northern side of Georgia—the Altamahaw penetrates the state—these, with their various branches, and the smaller rivers, the St. Mary, the two Satillas, Ogeechy, and numerous creeks, water the state and facilitate the transportation of commodities.

Of the Climate. Georgia lies in a region of the earth where winter is scarcely known. Frost and snow are rare occurrences, and are not considerable, except in winters of unusual severity. The flat lands on the borders of rivers and the ocean, are subject to autumnal fevers; but the hilly country enjoys, as in every part of the world, a temperate and salubrious air.

Of the Productions. The productions of Georgia are the same as those of South-Carolina—cotton, rice, tobacco, maiz, wheat, the inferior species of grain, and all the tropical fruits. The Atlantic shore of this state and of South-Carolina, is faced with islands, which were originally covered with live-oak, the best of ship-timber, but as these islands produce the finest cotton, *the planters are* destroying the timber, to convert the *land into cotton* plantations.

Of the Counties and Towns. Georgia is divided into twenty-four counties. The chief towns are Savannah, on the river of that name, which is the principal commercial port. It contained in 1800, five thousand one hundred and fifty persons, nearly half of them blacks. Augusta, on the Savannah also, one hundred and twenty-seven miles north-west from Savannah; Louisville, on the Ogeechy, the seat of government, one hundred miles north-westward of Savannah; and Sunbury, on the sea shore, forty miles south of Savannah; and a few other places have considerable settlements.

Of the Inhabitants. In 1790, the inhabitants were, whites, fifty-three thousand—blacks, twenty-nine thousand. In 1800, one hundred and three thousand whites, and sixty thousand slaves. They are of the usual religious denominations.

Of the Militia. The militia of this state consists of two divisions, seven brigades, twenty regiments, and twenty-eight thousand rank and file of infantry, besides a respectable body of cavalry, artillery and riflemen.

Of the Commerce. Some of the productions of Georgia are among the richest articles of exports, especially cotton, the finest species of which grows on the islands that border the sea coast. The other considerable articles are, rice, tobacco, lumber, deer skins, maiz, live stock, and many inferior articles. The exports in 1800, amounted to more than two millions of dollars.

Of the Literary Institutions. The legislature of Georgia have founded and endowed a college at Louisville. There are also some schools in the state. A law of the state has incorporated a number of literary gentlemen, for the purpose of establishing and superintending seminaries of learning—fifty thousand acres of land are appropriated for funds, for this university—and a sum of money in each county for maintaining an academy. The funds destined by Mr. Whitfield to maintain an orphan house, and by him bequeathed to the countess of Huntingdon, in trust, are

vested in commissioners to support a college called by her name.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Georgia, formed in May, 1795, the legislative power is lodged in two houses, a senate and a house of representatives, appointed annually, and called the *general assembly.* The senate consists of twenty-three members; the other house of fifty-one.

Of the Qualifications. A senator must be twenty-eight years of age, an inhabitant of the United States for nine years, and three years a citizen of Georgia—he must have been six months resident in the county, and possess property to the amount of eleven hundred and eleven dollars, or two hundred and fifty acres of land.

Of the Qualifications of the Representatives and Electors. A representative must be of age, seven years a citizen of the United States, two years an inhabitant of Georgia, and resident in the county three months. He must possess a freehold of two hundred acres of land, or estate to the value of six hundred and sixty-six dollars and two thirds. A man is qualified for an elector, by the payment of a tax and six months residence in the county.

Of the Executive. The chief magistrate or governor, in Georgia, is chosen by the legislature, for two years, and is re-eligible. To entitle a person to hold the office, he must have been a citizen twelve years, and resident six years in the state. He must possess five hundred acres of land, and other property worth four thousand four hundred and forty-four dollars.

Of the Judiciary and Military. The judges of the courts are appointed by the legislature for three years, but may be re-appointed. The military officers are appointed by the governor.

Kentucky.

Of the Situation. Kentucky extends from the middle of the thirty-sixth degree of north latitude, to the beginning of the fortieth—and from the eighty-third

to the ninetieth degree of west longitude. It was merly a part of Virginia, and became one of the ted States, by act of congress, on the first day of 1792.

Of the Bounds. Kentucky is bounded on the nor the Ohio; on the east by Sandy river, and a lin south from its source to the border of North-Car across the Cumberland mountain; on the south b middle of the thirty-sixth degree of latitude, adj to the state of Tennessee.*

Of the Extent. The utmost length of this stat ceeds three hundred and fifty miles, but the avera the length may be stated at two hundred and fifty and of the breadth, at one hundred and fifty; gives an area of thirty-seven thousand five hu square miles, and twenty-four millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. On the eastern side of the are the great ridges of mountains which run pa with the Allegany, or detached elevations, whicl be considered as spurs projecting from those r From these mountains proceed the great rivers o state. Other mountains, hills or broken lands found in other parts of the state.

Of the Rivers. On the north, this state is wa by the noble river, Ohio; on the south is the berland, a large navigable river; in the interio the Kentucky, the Licking, and Green river; all siderable streams. The branches of these and smaller streams, wash and fertilize the state of tucky.

Of the Climate. It is generally agreed that th mate of the territory on the west of the great n tains of the United States is more mild, and subj fewer vicissitudes of cold and heat, calm and pestuous weather, than the climates of the same tudes on the Atlantic coast. The summers in tucky are temperate; and the winters in ge

* *Kentucky was* first settled by Col. Boon, in *erected into an independent* state in 1790, and a *into the Union in* 1792.

very mild, frost and snow being rare and of short duration.

Of the Counties and Towns. This state is divided into forty-two counties. The chief towns are Lexington on a branch of the Elkhorn, a stream that discharges into the Kentucky; Frankfort, on the Kentucky, the seat of government, and Louisville on the Ohio. The inhabitants, in 1791, were sixty one thousand whites, and twelve thousand slaves—in 1800, one hundred and eighty-one thousand whites, and forty thousand slaves. The militia, in 1802, amounted to twenty seven thousand men.

Of the Soil and Productions. The state of Kentucky contains a great variety of soil, but in general is fertile and produces all sorts of grain, plants and fruits, suited to the climate. The principal productions, are wheat, maiz, tobacco, hemp, barley, oats, rye, pork and beef. The salt licks furnish salt, the maple supplies sugar, spirits are distilled from grain, the rivers abound with fish, and the woods with buffaloes and deer.

Of the Commerce. Kentucky enjoys great advantages for internal navigation; but is remote from any convenient port for foreign trade. Its wheat, flour, tobacco, pork, beef, skins, lumber, and other commodities are easily transported down the great rivers to the Mississippi, and on that river to New-Orleans, but the difficulty of ascending that rapid winding river, impedes or renders expensive the importation of bulky foreign articles, and no small part of the foreign goods consumed in that state, are transported from Philadelphia and Baltimore.

Of the state of Learning and Religion. Provision has been made by law for founding and maintaining a college; and schools are established in different parts of the state. The people are of various denominations; and the methodists are very numerous Universal freedom is allowed to religious opinion and worship; but no person can be compelled to maintain or attend public worship.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Kentucky, established April 19, 1792, the legislature con-

eists of two branches, a senate and house of re
tatives, chosen by ballot, and denominated the G
Assembly.

Of the Representatives. The representativ
chosen annually by the qualified voters in the
counties. They must be twenty four years o
citizens and inhabitants of the state for two yea
for six months preceding the election inhabitants
counties for which they are chosen.

Of the Senators. The senators are chosen b
tors for four years. The qualified voters cho
each county, a number of persons equal to the n
of representatives to which the county is en
These are the electors of the senators. They m
twenty-seven years of age, and have resided in th
three years. The senators must have attaine
same age and been resident in the state for two ye

Of the Voters. All free male citizens of lega
who have resided in the state for two years, or
county in which they offer to vote for one year
the election, are qualified to vote for represent
and electors.

Of the Executive. The governor of Kentuc
chosen by the electors of the Senate, at the tim
place of chusing senators, and he holds his office
wise for four years. He must be thirty years o
and have been a citizen and an inhabitant of the
for two years. He has power to remit fines an
feitures, and to grant pardons and reprieves. In
of death or resignation, his office devolves on the s
er of the senate.

Of the Judiciary The judicial power is lodge
supreme court and such inferior courts as the le
ture may establish The judges are appointed b
governor and senate, and hold their offices during
behavior, but may be removed by the governor, o
address of two thirds of both branches of the Ge
Assembly.

Of other Officers. Sheriffs and coroners are el
by the citizens, and hold their offices for three
but are not eligible for the succeeding three y

The treasurer is appointed by the joint ballot of both houses of the legislature. Field and staff officers of the militia are appointed by the governor, except battalion staff officers who are appointed by the field officers of each battalion Most of the civil officers are appointed by the governor and senate.

Tennessee.

Of the Situation. Tennessee is situated in the thirty-fifth and thirty-sixth degrees of north latitude, and extends from the middle of the eighty-second degree, to the Missisippi, in the ninety-second degree of west longitude.

Of the Bounds. This state has North-Carolina on the east, the Missisippi territory on the south, Kentucky on the north and the Missisippi on the west. It was formerly a part of North-Carolina; ceded by that state to congress in 1789, and formed into a state, and received into the union in 1796.

Of the Extent. The length of Tennessee is about three hundred and fifty miles, and the breadth one hundred. Its area is therefore about thirty-five thousand square miles, containing upwards of twenty-two millions of acres.

Of the Mountains. On the east, are the different ridges which are a continuation of the mountains in Virginia—some of them of stupendous size and elevation. The chief are the Stone mountain, the Yellow, the Iron, the Bald, the Clinch and Cumberland. The latter penetrates into the centre of the state. The mountains are numerous and many of them not capable of cultivation.

Of the Rivers. The Tennessee river, from which the state is named, is one of the largest rivers in the United States. It proceeds from the mountains on the east, and winding between the vast ridges of the Cumberland mountain on one side, and the Bald and Iron mountains on the other, finds its way to the Ohio. It is navigable for ships of burden, two hundred and fifty miles, to the Mussle shoals, and boatable nine hundred

miles to Tellico block-house. The chief branches of this river, are the Clinch, the Holston, the French, Broad and Duck rivers. The Cumberland enters this state on the north, and waters a large tract of land; then re-enters Kentucky.

Of the Climate and Soil. Tennessee enjoys a very mild and temperate climate; and is distinguished for the salubrity of its air. The soil, except the barren and inaccessible mountains, is generally fertile: producing all the species of grain, plants, roots, and fruits, which are found in similar latitudes.

Of the chief Productions. The staple commodities are cotton, wheat and maiz, which are very productive. The soil is covered with timber of the best kinds—the rivers abound with fish—the forests with buffaloes, deer, and other animals, and the country is well furnished with salt springs, iron ore, sulphur, saltpetre and lead.

Of the Counties and Towns. Tennessee is laid out into six districts, and in 1800, there were eighteen counties. The principal towns are Knoxville on the Holston, which is the seat of government, and Nashville on the Cumberland, which was named after General Nash, who fell in the battle of Germantown, and is the seat of the courts in Mero district.

Of the Inhabitants. The first settlers of Tennessee were emigrants from the western settlements in Pennsylvania and Virginia. A few families attempted a settlement in 1754, but were driven away or destroyed. The first effectual attempt was in 1765, on the Watauga, a branch of the Holston. The number of inhabitants in 1795, was seventy-seven thousand persons: in 1800, the number was one hundred and six thousand, of which thirteen thousand five hundred were slaves.

Of the Commerce. By means of the Tennessee and Cumberland, navigation is opened from the Missisippi into the inland parts of this state; and the cotton, wheat, flour, tobacco, skins and lumber may be easily transported to New-Orleans. The only port of entry in the state is Palmyra.

Of the Learning and Religion. Several schools are established in this state, and by law, provision is made for three colleges. There is also a society for promoting useful knowledge. The inhabitants are of various religious denominations, of which the presbyterians are said to be the most numerous. Ministers of the gospel are precluded from a seat in the legislature; and no person denying the being of a God, and a future state of rewards and punishment, can hold any civil office.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Tennessee, established February 6, 1796, the legislature consists of two branches, a senate and house of representatives, chosen for two years, and called the General Assembly.

Of the Qualifications The senators and representatives are elected in districts, and must be of lawful age; must possess two hundred acres of land in the county in which he is chosen, and must have resided three years in the state, and one year in the county. The electors must be of age, possess a freehold in the county, and be inhabitants of the state; and inhabitants in the county six months before the election.

Of the Executive. The executive power is lodged in a governor chosen by the people, who must be twenty five years of age; possessed of a freehold of five hundred acres of land, and have been a citizen or inhabitant of the state, for four years. He holds his office for two years, but cannot hold it more than six years in eight. He has power to grant pardons and reprieves after conviction. In case of his death, resignation or removal, his place is supplied by the speaker of the senate.

Of the Judiciary. The judicial power is vested in such courts as the legislature may establish. The judges of law and equity, and the attornies of the state, are appointed by the joint ballot of both houses, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The judges of the superior court receive a fixed salary, and no fees *or perquisites.* Sheriffs, coroners and constables are *appointed* by the county courts.

Of other Officers. The treasurer of the state is appointed by the legislature, for two years. The soldiers in a company chuse the captains and inferior officers. The soldiers in a county, elect field officers. Brigadier generals are chosen by the field officers of their respective brigades; and major generals, by the brigadiers and field officers of the divisions. The adjutant-general is appointed by the governor.

Ohio.

Of the Situation of the State of Ohio. The state of Ohio lies between the western limit of Pennsylvania, and a meridian line drawn from the mouth of the Great Miami, to its northern limit, which limit is an east and west line touching the southernmost part of the lake Mishigan. On the south it is washed by the river Ohio from which it derives its name.

Of the Extent. Ohio extends from a few minutes west of the eightieth degree of longitude, about five degrees, and from about the middle of the thirty-ninth degree of latitude, to the forty-third. Its length from east to west, is two hundred and twenty-three miles; its breadth on the western border is two hundred and fifteen miles, and on the eastern one hundred and sixty-five. Its mean breadth is one hundred and ninety miles. It contains forty-two thousand five hundred square miles, and more than twenty-seven millions of acres.

Of the Face of the State. The south-eastern part of Ohio consists of hilly land, interspersed with rich intervals or bottoms. The middle and western parts from the Scioto are a level country, very fertile and abounding with prairies, or flat land destitute of wood. The hilly parts are esteemed the most healthy. There are no elevations which deserve the name of mountains, and it is noted that the rough broken lands are all adjacent to the rivers.

Of the Rivers. The chief rivers are the Big Beaver, Muskingum, Scioto, Great Miami, Little Miami, and

Hockhocking, which discharge their waters into the Ohio: the St. Joseph which falls into Mishigan; the Sandusky, and the Cayohoga, which falls into Erie: but there are many other streams. During the summer, this state, like all level countries, suffers from a failure of the streams, which become very low, and nearly stagnant. Nor do the rivers furnish falls of water for good mill seats in convenient abundance.

Of the Soil, Productions, and Minerals. The soil of this state is for the most part, a loam, or light earth, on a bottom of clay. Few parts are stony. The soil is very rich, producing luxuriant crops of maiz and other grains. The wood, native vegetables, and cultivated fruits are the same in this state, as in others under the same parallels of latitude. Salt springs supply the inhabitants with salt; coal, allum, and niter have been found in abundance, as has the sulphuret of iron. Iron ores are found in detached situations; but not in quantities sufficient to supply a furnace, or to justify the erection of one.

Of the Civil Divisions of the State. Ohio is divided into eighteen counties, which for the distribution of justice, are formed into three circuits; the first consisting of Butler, Hamilton, Montgomery, Warren, Green and Clermont; the second of Adams, Sciota, Gallia, Ross, Franklin, Fairfield, and Muskingum; the third, of Washington, Belmont, Jefferson, Columbiana, and Trumbull.

Of the Towns. The chief towns are Chilicotha, Marietta, and Cincinnati. Chilacotha is the seat of government. It is upon the west bank of the Sciota, about forty miles from its confluence with the Ohio, and eighty miles westward of Marietta. Marietta is a pleasant and thriving town, at the junction of the Muskingum with the Ohio, on a plain surrounded by hills at a mile's distance. It consists of about one hundred houses. Cincinnati, is upon the bank of the Ohio, a thriving town in a fertile country, containing one hundred and fifty houses.

Of other Towns. Steubenvill, on the Ohio, twenty five miles above Wheeling: Lancavill, at the confluence

ence of Licking and the Muskingum; Lancaster, near the head of the Hockhocking; Belvill eight miles from Marietta; and Galliopolis, on the Ohio a little below the Great Kanhaway, a French settlement; are the principal towns and villages. The free male inhabitants, in 1803, were found by a census to be fifteen thousand, four hundred and fifteen.

Of the original Settlers. The southern and western parts of Ohio were settled by emigrants from New-Jersey and Pennsylvania; the district between the Scioto and Little Miami, known by the name of Virgina Military Reservation, was settled chiefly from Virginia and Kentucky. A number of Germans have planted themselves on the fertile lands about the sources of the Hockhocking. The Ohio company's purchase and the county of Trumbull are peopled by natives of New-England, and the district between Washington and Trumbull has been planted by Pennsylvanians.

Of the Natives. In the year 1790, this tract of country, now Ohio, contained twenty thousand Indians.—By means of wars, diseases, and the settlements made by civilized men, who level the woods, drive away the game, and compel the savages to seek subsistence in western forests, the number is reduced to three or four hundred. These are the remains of the Shawanees, Delawares and Wyandots; with two insignificant villages on the Sandusky. The title of the natives to some of the western parts of this state is not yet extinguished.

Of Curiosities. Within this state, as in other transalleganian districts, are seen the remains of regular fortifications consisting of a wall or rampart of earth, from three to five feet high and rectangular. Trees of a great size are now growing on the walls. By whom, or at what period, these works were raised, it is impossible to determine, nor do the traditions of the Indians furnish any light on the subject. Near these works, are Pyramidical mounts of earth, from thirty to a hundred feet high; supposed to be raised as tombs, or repositories of the bones of the dead.

History of Ohio. The settlement in this state commenced soon after the revolution, under grants to certain individuals and companies; as at Marietta, Cincinnati and Galliopolis. After the sale of the Western Reserve, so called, by the state of Connecticut, the proprietors encouraged numerous emigrations from the eastern states, and a rapid increase of population succeeded. Until the year 1802, this state was a part of the North-Western Territory, and governed by special ordinances of congress. In 1802, the inhabitants had become so numerous as to be entitled to form themselves into a state. A convention was accordingly held, a constitution formed, and at the next session of congress, the state of Ohio took its place as a member of the union.

Of the Government. By the constitution of Ohio, the legislature consists of two branches, a senate and house of representatives. The latter house is limited to seventy-two members. The senators cannot exceed one half nor be less than a third of the number of the representatives. The electors are all the white male inhabitants of age, and of one year's residence in the state. The senate is divided into two classes, one of which goes out of office every year.

Of the Executive. The executive power is lodged in a governor, who is chosen by the electors, once in two years. He is commander in chief of the militia, grants reprieves and pardons, and fills the offices which become vacant during the recess of the legislature.

Of the Judiciary. The judiciary consists of a supreme court of three judges, with cognizance of cases in law and equity, and power to correct the errors of inferior courts—of courts of common pleas, consisting of a president and three associate judges, who have civil jurisdiction in causes of above twenty dollars demand, subject to an appeal in causes of more than one hundred dollars demand; and criminal jurisdiction in all cases under the degree of felony.—The *judges of these* courts are appointed by the legislature, *and hold* their offices for seven years. To these

are added justices of the peace, who are chosen by the people for three years.

Mississippi Territory.

Of the Situation and Extent. The territory belonging to the United States, south of Tennessee, lies between 31 and 35 degrees of north latitude, and between the Catahochy in the eighty-fifth, and the Missisippi in the ninety-second degree of west longitude. Its mean extent, east and west, is about three hundred miles, and its breadth, north and south, two hundred and seventy-five; the area therefore contains more than fifty-two millions of acres.

Face of the Country. Except the branches or spurs of the Alleganean ridges, which terminate in the northern and eastern parts of this territory, the land is mostly level, and covered with the trees common to the latitudes. On the rivers, are extensive flats of rich land, many of which are clothed with canes of a great size, which form an almost impenetrable thicket.

Of the Rivers. This territory is washed on the west by the great river Missisippi, and on the east by the Catahochy, which is a large navigable stream.—Near the center, the country is penetrated by the large streams which enter Mobill bay, which are the Alabama, which is formed by the united streams of the Coosaw and Tallaposy, both which are considerable streams, and the Tombigby, another large stream from the north-west: forty miles west of Mobill, is the Pascagola, a stream that is boatable more than one hundred miles. Sixty miles west is Pearl river, about the size of the Pascagola. About sixty miles further west is the Amit, a stream which enters the Ibbervill channel, and carries boats about one hundred miles. These, with many smaller streams, have their sources in the Missisippi territory, and run south into the bay of Mexico. The Yazoo is a considerable river which enters the Missisippi.

Of the Settlements. The Indian title to this great body of land, is not extinguished, except the title to two tracts—one of a million and a half of acres, on the Missisippi, below the Yazoo—and another tract of equal extent between the Pascagola and Tombigby.—On these tracts are the only settlements. The principal town is Natchez, situated on the bank of Missisippi, in latitude 31 degrees, 30 north. This town, so called from a tribe of Indians, was settled by the French in 1727. In 1731, the settlers were mostly massacred by the Indians, which occasioned a deadly war, in which the tribe was almost wholly destroyed.

Of the Government and Population. The Missisippi Territory is governed by a special ordinance of congress, and the governor, who is appointed by the president, resides at Natchez. In the year 1800, the whole population fell short of nine thousand souls, except Indians; several tribes of which reside on this territory and own the land.

Indiana.

Of the Territory called Indiana. That part of the United States which lies westward of the State of Ohio, extending to the Missisippi, and from the river Ohio northward to the northern limit of the United States, is called Indiana, and governed by a special ordinance of congress. This tract of country, which is of great extent, contains the large rivers Waubash and Illenois, with a great number of others, and a vast body of excellent land. The chief settlements are on the Waubash, Kaskaskia and Mackinaw.

Mishigan Territory.

That part of the United States which lies north of *a line drawn east* from the southern extremity of lake *Mishigan until* it intersects lake Erie, and east of a

line from the said extremity northerly through the middle of the Mishigan to the northern limit of the United States, and west of the state of New-York, is erected into a separate district for the purposes of government. This territory is governed by a special ordinance of congress. The governor is appointed by the president, and resides at Detroit, the principal settlement in the territory. In the summer of 1805, this town consisting of 300 houses was all reduced to ashes; but it is now rebuilt on a more secure and elegant plan.

LOUISIANA.

Of the Discovery of the Missisippi. The great river Missisippi, as has been related, was first discovered in 1541, by a Spanish adventurer, Ferdinand de Soto, who, with twelve hundred soldiers, landed in Florida, in 1539, penetrated to the Chickasaw country in search of gold and silver; then crossed the Missisippi, and advanced westward, a considerable distance, where he died—and his surviving followers, returning, sailed down the river and proceeded to Mexico. This river was also discovered by a Colonel Wood in 1654, and by a captain Bolt in 1670.

Of the French Claim to the Country on the Missisippi. The French in Canada, very early imbibed an idea of the practicability of opening a communication, between Canada and the bay of Mexico, by means of some river. To ascertain this point, the French king gave orders to La Salle to explore the country. This man in 1682 or 3, went down the Missisippi to its mouth, and returned to Canada, having ascertained the desired communication. Elated with this discovery, he went to France, and by a representation of the advantages of the Missisippi for opening a vast trade with Canada and the western country, a company was soon formed to colonize the banks of the river.

Of the first Attempt to settle on the River. The adventurers, under La Salle, embarked in four vessel

ut were carried beyond their intended port, and in February 1684, began a settlement at Bernard's bay, a hundred leagues westward of the Missisippi. Many of the settlers perished by diseases and hardships; and in 1687, as La Salle was exploring the interior country, two of his followers murdered him, and his projected establishment failed. After the peace of Ryswic in 1697, the king of France sent a French naval officer, named Iberville, with a small number of men, to erect a fort and keep possession of the country. This officer effected the object, and founded a permanent settlement on the bank of the Mississippi in 1698. He returned to France to procure supplies a first and a second time, but died on his third voyage. From him was named the channel of communication between the river and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain.

Of the Grant to Crozat. In 1712, the King of France granted to a wealthy citizen by the name of Crozat, the exclusive right to trade, for fifteen years, on the Mississippi and the adjacent territory. In this grant, the territory is named from him, Louisiana, or the country of Lewis, and described within the following boundaries; on the north, the lake Illenois; on the east, the lands of the English in Carolina; on the south, the bay of Mexico; and on the west, New-Mexico. These orders, discoveries and public acts, constituted the whole of the original title of France to Louisiana. The grant to Crozat interfered with the charters given by the king of England, to several of the colonies, which extended from the Atlantic to the western ocean. This grant also unfolded the object of the French king, which was to unite Louisiana to Canada, and to comprehend in his dominions, all the territory westward of the Allegany mountains.

Of the Missisippi Company. In 1717, a company was formed in France to carry on an extensive trade to Louisiana, which company embarked in the scheme of John Law, to pay off the national debt of France, by a bank. To forward the views of this company, Crozat resigned his patent, and the exclusive trade

the Missisippi was vested in an association, cal the company of the west. This company undert to enlarge the settlement on the Missisippi, and 1720, was laid out the town of New-Orleans. T scheme of the company failed with the ruin of royal bank in France, but the settlements on the M sisippi continued in possession of France, till the y 1762, though the increase of population was extrem slow.

Of the Changes of its Sovereigns. While the Fre settlements were confined to the banks of the Mi sippi, they excited but little jealousy in the Bri nation. But about the year 1752, the French be to assert an exclusive right to the lands on the O and intercepted the colonial traders in their comm with the Indians.—Soon after they erected a fort the confluence of the Ohio and Monongahela, wh Pittsburg now stands.—This step and various o movements alarmed the British ministry, and to ch the dangerous encroachments of the French, war declared which ended in the subjection of Canad the British crown. At the close of this war in 1 France, by a secret convention, ceded Louisiana, in ding New-Orleans, to Spain. In the following year the treaty of peace between Great-Britain and Fra the whole of Florida from the Atlantic to the mi of the Iberville and the Missisippi, was ceded to Gr Britain, and in this state continued these territories the revolution

Of Disturbances in Louisiana. After the cessio Louisiana to the Spanish crown, the inhabitants rem ed a long time without any knowledge of that event. 1766, Don Ulloa, a Spanish agent, arrived at New leans, and the next year, a body of Spanish troops Havanna; but this officer, for want of orders, nes ed to take formal possession of the country, whil proceeded to erect forts, establish monopolies, an strict commerce. This produced a contest betwee old council at New-Orleans, and Don Ulloa; w state of distraction continued, till the arrival o Spanish governor O'Riley, in 1769, who took sion of the country for Spain.

f the Transfer of Louisiana to the United States.
ring the revolutionary war in the United States,
in conquered Florida, and by the treaty of peace in
3, that territory was confirmed to her. By the trea-
of Ildefonso, between France and Spain, October 1,
0, it was stipulated that Louisiana should be ced-
to France, on certain conditions, which were to be
filled by the French government, in regard to the
ke of Parma. That treaty was confirmed by anoth-
concluded at Madrid, March 21, 1801. And by
reaty, concluded at Paris, April 30, 1803, between
ance and the United States, Louisiana was sold to
e United States, for the sum of fifteen millions of
llars.

Of the Bounds of Louisiana. It has been already re-
ed that in the French king's grant of the trade of
uisiana to Crozat, the patent comprehended the
untry between the Missisippi, and the Alleganean
ountains, which now forms a part of the United
ates. But the claim of the French to that part of the
untry, east of the Missisippi, was ill founded, and
ever admitted by the British nation; and at the peace
1763 Louisiana was limited to the country west of
e Missisippi, and of the Ibervill. It is however as-
rted that the United States will claim to extend the
untry to the river Perdido, east of the Mobill, the
mit of Louisiana, under the French government. On
e south, the bay of Mexico is the boundary of the
untry, and on the west, New Mexico, or a Spanish
rovince, called Taxus.

Of the Extent. As the northern limit of Louisiana
not fixed, and the eastern and western, not well as-
rtained, the extent of this territory cannot be defined.
rom the bay of Mexico to the confluence of the Mis-
rie with the Missisippi is nearly six hundred miles;
d if the mean breadth of the province should prove to
two hundred, the area would contain one hundred
d twenty thousand square miles, and seventy six
illions, eight hundred thousand acres, which would lie
the south of the Missorie.

Face of the Country. The land from the entrance of the Missisippi into the bay of Mexico, northerly about two hundred and thirty miles, is low, and supposed to be chiefly formed by the earth protruded from the river by the violence of its current. This projection of earth, forms on the east of the river, a tract, called New-Orleans, which when the river is low, about eight or nine months in the year, is a peninsula, extending two hundred miles from north-west to south east, between the river and the lakes Ponchartrain, and Manrepas; but when the river is swelled in the spring, the water runs in a channel or creek called Ibbervill, into these lakes, and thence into the sea, and renders New-Orleans an Island.

Of the Western bank of the Missisippi. The land on the west side of the Missisippi is low, but capable of cultivation as far north as Cut Point, (Point Coupee) about one hundred and fifty miles above New-Orleans; from thence to Cape Girardo above the mouth of the Ohio, a distance of more than two hundred miles, the land is overflowed in the spring, to the distance of twenty-five or thirty miles from the river, and of course is incapable of cultivation, or at least, unfit for settlements; as the water spreads over the whole from two to twelve feet deep—To the northward and westward of this low tract, the land rises into hills and mountains, interspersed with extensive bottoms, and prairies, which are natural meadows without trees.

Of the Entrance of the Missisippi into the Ocean. The waters of this vast river, swelled annually in the spring to the heighth of fifty-five feet above the level of low water, waft down immense quantities of trees, wood, vegetables and earthly particles which lodge on the banks or shoals at the place where they meet the waters of the ocean. By these means, a large tract of land has been formed at this point, and is gradually extended further and further into the bay of Mexico. In this tract of low ground, the river has worn or preserved several channels, some of which are dry at low water *Thus* the channel called Ibbervill or Manshac has considerable stream, when the river is high and can

a part of the flood into Lake Maurepas, and thence into Lake Ponchartrain, from whence it is conducted to the sea. Below New-Orleans is a channel at Plaquemins, and at the extremity of the river, there are five channels or passes; the deepest of which has only sixteen feet of water. This is called the Balize or Baleze, which signifies a buoy or sea mark; but is applied, in common language, to the principal channel or entrance into the river.

Of the Channels on the West. From the Missisippi, there issues on the west side, a channel called the Fork, (La Fourche) about seventy-five miles above New-Orleans. This channel is dry at low water, but during the freshet has a navigable stream, and forms an island of one hundred and seventy miles in length.—About two hundred miles above New-Orleans, issues another channel, called Chaffala, which affords boatable water at all times, if not obstructed by drift-wood, and during the swell of the river, it is navigable for vessels of considerable size. This river washes the populous settlements of Appalusa and Attacapa, and enters the bay of Mexico at St. Bernards. The Missisippi therefore discharges its waters, during its rise in spring, by nine large channels, besides some smaller outlets.

Of the Soil. The soil of New-Orleans island, and of all the neighboring flat land, is very rich, especially along the banks of the rivers, and creeks, where its fertility appears to be inexhaustible. On the banks of the rivers, the land is capable of cultivation, and much of it is already cultivated; but from the margin of the river it slopes into low swampy ground, too wet for cultivation, except for rice. This is the general character of the islands from the Baleze to Manshac, and from Lake Maurepas to the Chaffala river.

Of the Settlements. The chief settlements are on the banks of the Missisippi, and its outlets. The settlements on New-Orleans begin about forty miles from the Baleze, and extend along the margin of the river in separate plantations, which front on the river, and run back from half a mile to a mile and a half, usually terminating in a cypress swamp.—The prin-

cipal settlements are on the island of New-Orleans, on the Fork, the Chaffala, the Ibbervill or Manshac, at Baton, Cut-Point, and on the Red River.

Of New-Orleans. New-Orleans, the chief town in Louisiana, is situated on the peninsula, or island of the same name, which is two hundred miles in length and from two to twenty in breadth.—The town stands on the east margin of the Missisippi, near the middle of the peninsula, in 30 degrees of north latitude and 90 of west longitude. The town is regularly laid out in squares; the streets cross each other at right angles, and are thirty-two French feet wide. The houses are mostly of brick, many of them two and three stories high, and some of them elegant. The lower rooms are raised about eight feet from the ground, the ground rooms being the cellars; as subterraneous apartments would be filled with water. The town is a mile in length, and contains about ten thousand inhabitants.

Of the Public Buildings and Works. New-Orleans contains a government house, stables and garden; a military hospital; a custom house; two large public warehouses; an extensive barrack; a prison; a town house; market house and assembly room; a public school for the rudiments of the Spanish language; a cathedral church; a charitable hospital, with some houses belonging to it, and an annual revenue of fifteen hundred dollars. From this town, a canal is cut about a mile and a half, opening a water communication with a creek, which flows into the Ponchartrain. The canal is called by the name of a late governor, Carondelet. A bank has lately been established in this city.

Of the Chief Rivers in Louisiana. Red River which enters the Missisippi three miles above Chaffala, is said to be a thousand miles in length, and a great part of that distance navigable or boatable. On its banks are extensive intervals of very rich land, and considerable settlements with the village of Natchitoches. The Arkansaw is a still larger river, with a navigable and boatable stream.—Above these is the Missorie, a large river not the principal branch of the Missisippi. It has been ex-

plored more than a thousand miles but not to its sources. —Besides these, there is Black river, a branch of Red river, which is boatable for some hundred miles, especially its main branch Washeta. The Osage, Kanza, Shallow river and many other streams water this territory, but their size and courses are little known.

Of the Productions. The trees of natural growth in Louisiana are the same as on the east side of the Missisippi, within the United States. The wild animals are also the same, and the forests are full of the European breed of cattle in a wild state. The cultivated plants are also the same. The principal plants cultivated for export are cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo and the sugar cane. The cane will thrive without much danger from the frost, as far north as Manshac. The lands contiguous to Red river produce tobacco of the best kind and in vast abundance. They produce also, as a common crop, from eighty to one hundred bushels of maiz. Below Natchez, the low ground on both sides of the Missisippi, and on the banks of all the large rivers and creeks, are covered with wild canes or reeds from twenty to thirty-five feet high.

Of the Minerals. In the high lands, two or three hundred miles west of the Missisippi, near the Missorie and Red river, there is native salt, and numerous salt springs which may supply that necessary commodity in inexhaustible quantities. Many of these springs are near Natchitoches, and occasion the brackishness of the water used in that settlement. Very rich lead mines are wrought near the Missorie. Iron, copper and coal abound in the country; and the western bank of the Missisippi, above the Ohio, is a solid wall of lime stone, for a great distance. Slate and free stone are abundant in the hilly country; but near the Missisippi, there is no stone of any kind on either side from the Baleze to the Little White Pool, thirty miles above Natchez, and on the west side, the land is a swamp or low ground made by the river, to a still greater distance north.

Of the Commerce and Exports. A considerable trade with New-Orleans has been carried on by the nation to

which Louisiana has belonged ; and within a few yea the United States have had no small share of the co merce. In the year 1802, there entered the Missis pi, two hundred and sixty eight vessels, of which 1 were American, 97 Spanish, and one French, conta ing thirty-four thousand tons. Of these, 18 were p lic armed ships ; the rest were merchantmen. T exports are cotton, sugar, rice, molasses, indigo, f peltry, tar, pitch, lumber, lead, flour, corn, horses cattle. In 1802, the exports amounted to more t two millions of dollars, and the imports to two milli and a half.

Of the Manufactures. Few articles are manufac ed in this province. A few cotton cloths are made coarse cloths consisting of wool and cotton, to cl the slaves of the interior country. In New-Orleans carried on some of the necessary handicraft occ tions ; and some cordage, shot, and hair powder manufactured. There is also one sugar refinery, in the neighbouring country, twelve distilleries rum.

Of the Population. The whole population of Lo ana, including Pensacola and Natchez, amounte 1802, to forty-two thousand. But the returns are posed to underrate the real number ; and from res table authorities, the actual number of whites is su sed to be fifty thousand, and of the blacks, thirty- thousand. The militia amounted to five thousand five hundred men, or as some allege to ten thous The inhabitants are mostly French ; partly f France and partly from Nova-Scotia. The latter the remains of the Arcadians, sent by general Lawr to the southern colonies, now states, who removed thence to Hispaniola, and lately to Louisiana. T are also some Germans settled along the Missisipp both sides, near New-Orleans.

Of the Former Government of Louisiana. W Louisiana was under the dominion of France, it governed by certain officers appointed by the Kin the manner of other colonies. After Spain be possessed of this territory, the regulations

French government were either abolished, or gradually superseded by new laws and orders of the Spanish governors. The province was placed under a governor, an intendant, certain alcades or judges, and commandants of districts. An ecclesiastic tribunal had jurisdiction over the church; the inhabitants being mostly Catholics.

Of the Transfer of Jurisdiction. The treaty between France and the United States, by which Louisiana was conveyed to the latter, having been duly ratified by the President and senate, and a law being passed by congress, making provision to carry the treaty into effect, measures were taken to obtain possession of the province. A governor was appointed, and a body of troops ordered to assist in the act of taking possession. To accommodate the act of taking possession to the treaties by which the right had been conveyed, the province was first surrendered to the French prefect, as the representative of the nation, in conformity with the treaty of Ildefonso. After this preliminary step, and other necessary preparations, the governor, and the commander in chief of the American troops, with a ceremony due to the important transaction, took formal possession of Louisiana, from the French agent, on the 20th day of December, 1803; and the American flag was displayed in New-Orleans, as an emblem of the sovereignty of the United States.

Of the present Government. By an act of Congress of March 1804, Louisiana is divided into two territories, Orleans and Louisiana. Orleans comprehends all the country east of the Missisippi, and on the west of that river, all the land south of the thirty-third degree of latitude. Over this territory, a governor is appointed by the President of the United States, for three years, who constitutes the executive power. A secretary is appointed for four years; but both officers are removable by the President. A council of thirteen persons, to be appointed annually by the President, from among the freeholders of the territory, *forms the legislative* power. The judiciary consist *of a superior* court and inferior courts to be ordain

by the legislature. The trial by jury is established in cases of capital crimes, and in other cases, civil and criminal, in the superior court, if either party requires it.—The judges, attorney, marshal, and general officers of the militia are appointed by the President.

Of the other Division. The northern part of the country is constituted a separate territory, and called the district of Louisiana. It is placed under the jurisdiction of the governor of Indiana; who, with the judges of the latter territory, is authorized to establish inferior courts in Louisiana, and make laws for the government of the inhabitants. A district court is established at Orleans, and such of the laws of the United States as are applicable to the condition of the inhabitants, are extended to the whole country.—Perfect freedom of religion is guaranteed; a militia is constituted, and the importation of slaves prohibited.

SECTION XX.

Constitution of the United States.

Of the Legislature.

THE legislative power of the United States is vested in a Congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate and a house of representatives.—The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branch of the legislature in each state. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the age of twenty-five years, been a citizen

of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen

Of the Senate. The senate consists of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year.—If a vacancy happens during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen.

Of the Powers of the two Houses. The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments, each house determines the validity of the elections and qualifications of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest while attending on the session, going to or returning from the same, except for treason, felony or breach of the peace.

Of the Powers of Congress. The congress of the United States have power to make and enforce all laws which are necessary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, imposts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, establish uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, establish post-roads and post-offices, promote the arts and sciences, institute tribunals, inferior to the supreme court, define and punish piracy, declare war, and make reprisals, raise and support armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws necessary to carry these powers into effect.

Of Restrictions. No bill of attainder or retrospective law shall be passed; the writ of habeas corpus can-

not be suspended except in cases of rebellion or invasion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a census of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports, no money can be drawn from the treasury, unless appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any public officer, without the consent of congress, accept of any present or title from any foreign prince or state. The states are restrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or silver a tender for debts, and from passing any law impairing private contracts.

Of the Executive. The executive power of the United States is vested in a president, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for president, he must have been a citizen at the adoption of the constitution or must be a native of the United States; he must have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. The president and vice president are chosen by electors designated in such a manner as the legislature of each state shall direct. The number of electors in each state is equal to the whole number of senators and representatives.

Of the Powers of the President. The president of the United States is commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the militia when in actual service. He grants reprieves and pardons: nominates, and with the consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, judges and other officers; and with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions; receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of public affairs, and in general takes care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Of the Judiciary. The judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferior courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behaviour, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their conti-

ance in office. The judicial power of these courts extends to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the states, and in which the United States are a party; between a state and a citizen of another state, and between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming under grants of different states; and to causes between one of the states or American citizen and a foreign state or citizen.

Of Rights and Immunities. In all criminal trials except impeachment, the trial by jury is guaranteed to the accused. Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted, but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each state are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states. Congress may admit new states into the union, and the national compact guarantees to each state, a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestic violence.

CONCLUSION.

General Views of the Inhabitants of the United States.

Of the Population.

THE original settlers of Virginia and New-England were almost all natives of England—those of New

York were natives of Holland and other parts of the Netherlands—a body of Swedes planted the first colony on the Delaware, where their descendants are still found, though few of them unmixed with the progeny other settlers. Maryland was originally peopled by emigrants from Ireland; the Carolinas and Georgia, by emigrants from England, Scotland and Germany; and Pennsylvania, from England, Ireland and Germany. To these original settlers are to be added the Africans, who were imported for the purpose of cultivating the plantations of the southern settlers, and for domestic servants

Of the Number of People. The inhabitants of the United States, exclusive of some tribes of Indians not enumerated, amounted in 1800, to *five millions three hundred and five thousand.* Of this number a million are Africans and their descendants; and eight hundred and ninety three thousand are slaves. The population of the United States, according to the increase of the last ten years, as exhibited by the census, doubles in twenty-eight years.—The population of the northern states doubles in less than twenty-five years, by natural means. But this increase is considerably accelerated by migrations from Europe.

Of the Subsistance. The first settlers for a few years, imported no small portion of their food from Europe; but soon become accustomed to the use of maiz, which they found among the natives, from whom they learnt the mode of cultivating it, and several ways of dressing it for food. Some of the dishes which are still favorites on our tables, as samp, succotash and hommony, were derived from the Indians, and the hoe cake, so convenient on a journey in a wilderness, often sustained our ancestors in their expeditions through the forest, in war or in travelling. But wheat, and other grains, together with esculent roots, were soon cultivated so as to furnish an ample supply of food. The potatoe however, though originally an American root, was not cultivated in the English colonies till within about seventy years. Many persons are still living who never saw a potatoe till they were twenty years old. Tea and cof-

ee were of later introduction: indeed coffee was little sed till the revolution.

Of Clothing. The clothing of the first settlers was ll of foreign fabric; and so is all the cloth of fine texure, used in the United States at this time. The richess and cheapness of the lands in America, have nade the people almost wholly agricultural; and the ruits of the earth are exchanged with foreign naions for their manufactures. But as without manufactures, many female hands would be unemployed, most of the farmers raise a small quantity of flax, cotton or wool, which is wrought into coarse cloths for common use. Manufactures however are more and more attended to, as the people multiply and their wants increase; or as the prices of foreign manufactures are enhanced.

Of Luxuries. Before the revolution, luxury was limited to the southern colonies, and a few commercial towns in the northern. The food of the yeomanry of the country was almost wholly of their own production, as was most of their common clothing. Carriages were very rare in New-England, in the middle of the last century. The first chaise seen in New-Haven was introduced in the year 1740, and at that time there were no more than eleven houses in the town with sash lights. Boots were worn by few persons, before the revolution, and gold watches were extremely rare, till within fifteen years.

Of Amusements. Dancing has always been a favorite amusement in this country. Young people in every town and village, collect for the purpose on various occasions, and especially in New-England, at the General Elections, and at the annual Thanksgiving. In the large towns, regular assemblies are a part of the winter entertainments. Cards and back-gammon, form a part of the common diversions, and chess begins to be fashionable. Hunting is practised in a few places; and horse-races in the middle and southern states, are considered as the most interesting public entertainments. They are held regularly in spring and autumn, and are the general resort of fashionable peo-

ple from all the neighboring country. Amo
yeomanry, games with a ball, especially crick
very common. Formerly wrestling, was ver
mon among the young men, who studied it with
siduity bestowed in some countries on fencing;
practice is nearly obsolete.

Of the Persons and Character of the Inhabitant
inhabitants of the northern states are generall
bony and muscular; and less corpulent than the
lish ancestors. They are remarkable for their
try, invention and perseverance. They mal
most diligent farmers and mechanics—and th
active, bold and hardy seamen on earth. Th
distinguished for their habits of subordination
rental and civil authority, which render them p
ble, obliging and hospitable; but educated in
freedom, and with a strong sense of personal in
dence, they spurn at every assumption of super
and treat with contempt and detestation, any ma
is overbearing in his manners. The vices of dr
ness, tipling, gambling, trickishness in mutual de
profanity and the like, are found among the mo
rupt members of the community. But the grea
of the people who are freeholders, with estates
which furnish them with means of subsistence, ma
the character of good sense, discernment and pur
als; living in the constant attendance upon re
worship, and adorning their profession of christi
a correspondent practice.

THE

FAREWELL ADDRESS

OF

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

FRIENDS AND FELLOW-CITIZENS,

THE period for a new election of a citizen to administer the executive government of the United States, being not far distant, and the time actually arrived, when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprise you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom a choice is to be made. I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken, without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect, for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

2. The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped, that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even

led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you: but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of our affairs, with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea.

3. I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty, or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove my determination to retire.

4. The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust, were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say, that I have with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government, the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and, every day, the encreasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

5. In looking forward to the moment, which is intended to terminate the career of my public life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgement of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country, for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the stedfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment, by services faithful and persevering, *though* in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits *have* resulted to our country from these services, let

let always be remembered to your praise and as an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead, amidst appearances sometimes dubious—vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging—in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected.

6. Profoundedly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave, as a strong incitement to unceasing vows that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution, which is the work of your hands, may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection and the adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

7. Here perhaps I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare, which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review, some sentiments; which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motives to bias his council. Nor can I forget as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my *sentiments on a former* and not dissimilar occasion. *Interwoven as is* the love of liberty with every liga-

ment of your hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

8. The unity of government which constitutes you one people is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad; of your safety; of your prosperity; of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed, it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national Union, to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual and immoveable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and speak of it as of the Palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

9 For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of *American*, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits and political principles. You have in a common cause fought and triumphed together; the *Independence* and liberty you possess are the *work* of joint councils, and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings and successes. But these

considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest —Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the Union of the whole.

10. The *North*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *South*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise and precious materials for manufacturing industry. The *South*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the agency of the *North*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *North*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated: and while it contributes, in different ways, to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted. The *East*, in a like intercourse with the *West*, already finds, and in the progressive improvement of interior communications, by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *West* derives from the *East* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort—and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the *secure* enjoyment of indispensible *outlets* for its own productions to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as ONE NATION. Any other tenure by which the *West* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

11. While then every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in Union, all the *parties combined* cannot fail to find in the united mass *of means and efforts* greater strength, greater

source, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and, what is of inestimable value! they must derive from Union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government: which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. Hence likewise they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to Republican Liberty; in this sense it is, that your Union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

12. These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the *Union* as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt, whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorised to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue to the experiment. 'Tis well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to Union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those, who in any quarter may endeavour to weaken its bands.

13. In contemplating the causes which may disturb our Union, it occurs as a matter of serious concern, that any ground should have been furnished for characterising parties by *geographical* discriminations—*northern* and *southern*—*Atlantic* and *western*; whence *designing* men may endeavor to excite a belief that there *is a real* difference of local interests and views. One

of the expedients of party to acquire influence, within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart burnings which spring from these misrepresentations: they tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western county have lately had a useful lesson on this head: they have seen, in the negociation by the Executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the Senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the General Government and in the Atlantic States, unfriendly to their interests in regard to the *Missisippi*: they have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great-Britain and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the UNION by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren, and connect them with aliens?

14. To the efficacy and permanency of your Union, a government for the whole is indispensible—No alliances, however strict, between the parts, can be an adequate substitute: they must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which all alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former, for an intimate Union, and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of our own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, *completely free* in its principles, in the distribution *of its powers*, uniting security with energy, and con-

taining within itself a provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true Liberty. The basis of our political systems is the right of the people to make and alter their Constitutions of Government—But, the constitution which at any time exists, till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

15. All obstructions to the execution of the Laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, controul, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency.—They serve to organize faction, to give it an artificial and extraordinary force—to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of a party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and, according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests. However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely in the course of time and things to become potent engines, by which cunning, ambitious and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people, and to usurp to themselves the reins of government; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

16. Towards the preservation of your government, and the permanency of your present happy state, it is *requisite*, not only that you speedily discountenance *irregular* oppositions to its acknowledged authority,

but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however specious the pretexts. One method of assault may be to effect in the forms or the constitution alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments, as of other human institutions—that experience is the surest standard, by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitution of a country—that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion, exposes to perpetual change from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember, especially, that for the efficient management of your common interests in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigour as is consistent with the security of liberty, is indispensible. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, the surest guardian. It is indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

17. I have already intimated to you the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them on geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally. This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. —It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controled or repressed; but in those of the popular form, it is seen in its greatest rankness and is truly their worst enemy. The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which, in different ages and countries, has pe

petrated the most horrid enormities, is itself frightful despotism.—But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism—The disorders and miseries, which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual; and sooner or later the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation, on the ruins of public Liberty.

18. Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind (which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight) the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it. It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another, foments occasionally riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the government itself through the channels of party passions. Thus the policy and the will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This within certain limits is probably true; and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favour, upon the spirit of party. But in those of a popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From their natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose. And there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be by force of public opinion, to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be *quenched*; it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent *its bursting* into a flame, lest instead of warming, it *should* consume.